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AN INTRODUCTION TO THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

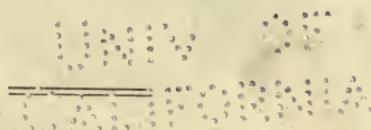
A TEXTBOOK OUTLINE

BY

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

This syllabus is published as it is being worked out in practice at the University of Southern California. While not in a finished form, it represents a beginning in what may be an important direction. The work of teaching in the field of the social sciences is handicapped through lack of an adequate course of study that will introduce the student to the general field and at the same time give him a comprehensive outlook. While this outline does not represent such an adequate course, it is printed in its present shape in order that it may be rapidly improved as the result of criticism.

The increasing interest in the study of society and societary problems by thinking people has created a growing demand for social science courses in the colleges. The need is not entirely for upper division and graduate students, but also for college freshmen and sophomores and students in the normal schools. The general method of meeting this demand is to offer courses dealing in an apparently disconnected way with economics, government, history, et cetera.

In many cases, the economist, for example, is teaching that economics is the fundamental social science and that all of the other social sciences are based upon and controlled by the economic desires of man, while in the same institution and at the same time, the historian, it may be, is teaching the same student that history and the historical method are primary to the understanding of human society. Thus the teachers and authorities in the field of the social sciences often present the rather strange spectacle of each claiming his own special social science as the most fundamental and of basing all other social sciences upon his own specialized field.

Team-work among the teachers of the social sciences is still almost lacking. Anything like correlation has been generally accidental rather than scientific. Even sociology has been asking the student to postpone unifying courses in the social sciences until his senior and graduate years.

There is need for a course of study which will introduce the student to the field of the social sciences. It should give him a broad, comprehensive outlook at the beginning of his college work and prepare him for and arouse his interest in further work in the individual social sciences. This study should make it possible for him to choose his life-activity with reference to all the activities of society and assist him more or less permanently in keeping his life-work properly oriented and fitted into its proper place in the life-work of society.

Such a course may well be given not from the uncorrelated points of view of the respective social sciences but from a societary point of view. It should clearly indicate that a good member of society should be produced before producing the lawyer, the engineer, the physician, or any other professional or occupational type.* It should emphasize the fact that the qualities which make good members of communities are more important than the accomplishments of life.* It should be based upon the proposition that the relations of men to one another are more important than the relations of men to nature.* It should never overlook the truth that the ideal of the United States today of individual power and success, instead of being a socializing agency, may become the chief instrument for dissolving the social order itself.* The course of study in question should show the solidarity of society and the interdependence of all its parts.

This syllabus is designed primarily for college freshmen and sophomores and for use in normal schools. It is intended to introduce the student to the whole field of social science. It is also intended to serve as a survey course to those students whose primary interests tend in other directions and who have time for only one course in the social science field.

It is here attempted to present, for example, the political or economic factors in social progress not only from a sociological point of view, but in such a way that the student will want to continue along political science or economic lines as the case may be. The student is not urged to follow up this course with purely sociological studies, but the attempt is made to

*Ellwood, C. A., *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*, Chap. XV.

direct his social interest so that it will find wholesome expression through law, politics, business, and so forth. In this outline, history may not appear to have received full consideration as an important member of the group of social sciences, but the course is based on historical data, the historical method is used more or less continuously and such constant emphasis is laid on historical explanations and backgrounds that by the time the course is completed, history is likely to have received more than its proportionate attention.

The course does not profess to offer new facts nor to formulate new principles. It does aim to combine known facts and principles in a new and comprehensive way. In order to cover the work, the section headings include 100 topics for class discussion. Each section as outlined is the basis for the discussion of one recitation period. The student is expected to bring into class each day illustrations (original illustrations wherever possible) of the various points in each section. The discussion which follows serves to clear up doubtful points.

From the student's point of view, this course is essentially based on concrete situations. In the case of each of the ten sets of factors in social progress (as outlined in the syllabus), the student is expected as far as possible to make a study of some actual concrete situation or social movement in which the respective set of factors is clearly evident. The student is asked to point out in his own way how the other factors in the given situation or historical social movement are related to the one under study at the given time, how people in present or past society solve or have solved social problems, et cetera. By the time the course is completed, the student will have made an intensive study of several concrete situations and movements. From the instructor's point of view, the aim is not that of teaching concepts chiefly, but rather that of teaching actual social experiences and movements and of developing the concepts only as they appear necessary.

A selected list of readings is subjoined to each section. The references marked with an asterisk have been found most useful in preparing the syllabus and where so marked, have been quoted from freely. The readings for each section have been selected

with the purpose in mind of presenting the given topic from several points of view and of using those references adapted to the degree of maturity of the college freshman and sophomore.

At the end of each chapter will be found a group of suggested topics for student investigation and for class reports. The student may be asked to subscribe to such a magazine as *The Survey*, in which regular assignments for class discussions may be made. The magazine will assist the student in keeping alive to present-day social changes. An occasional debate may be arranged for four or six members of the class on an apropos topic. To give over a class period once a month to a live debate on some phase of the topic under discussion at the time will add to the value of the course.

The writer received the fundamental idea of the syllabus and the stimulus for attempting to develop the idea when a student in the classes of Professor Albion W. Small. Special acknowledgement of indebtedness should be made here to Schmoller's *Grundriss der Allgemeinen Volkswirtschaftslehre*. The works of Schmoller and of many other important scholars are not included in the lists of suggested readings because too advanced in form and content for the type of student in mind. This syllabus is not intended as the basis, primarily, for lecture work, but for purposes of quiz and class discussion, hence the method is adopted of using somewhat complete sentences instead of the customary abbreviated outline of syllabi which are intended for advanced students.

The chief object of this course of study, in brief, is to whet the student's appetite for more knowledge in the field of the social sciences, and to arouse within him early in his college course a strong desire to go ahead systematically (if possible) with further work in each of the social science branches.

An Introduction to the Social Sciences

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY

SECTION 1. THE FIELD OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES.

- (1) The first sciences, with an inductive viewpoint, to develop were the physical.
 - a. They describe the facts and laws of the inorganic, non-living world.
 - b. In this field, measurements can be made accurately and laws stated with considerable exactness.
 - c. This group includes such sciences as Astronomy, Geology, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, etc.
- (2) Besides investigating the inorganic world, science has entered the field of organic activities; and the biological sciences are in process of development.
 - a. They describe the facts and laws of the living world.
 - b. Their subject matter is more complex than that of the physical sciences.
 - (a) Since they are based on physical facts and laws (not yet adequately described).
 - (b) Since they are attempting to describe non-mechanical, changing phenomena.
 - c. The group includes Biology, Zoölogy, Botany, General Physiology, General Anatomy, etc.
- (3) In recent times, the highest and most complex phase of life, namely, human life, has been scientifically approached and the social sciences are beginning to develop.
 - a. They are based directly on biological facts and laws and indirectly on physical facts and laws.
 - b. They use scientific methods in describing their data,—the coexistence and sequence of human life.

- c. The group includes economics, history, psychology, political science, ethics, the science of religion, etc.

Suggested Readings:

- Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Chs. I-V.
- Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. I.
- Dealey, Sociology, Ch. I.
- Small, The Meaning of Social Science, Ch. I.
- Ross, Foundations of Sociology, Ch. I.

SECTION 2. FACTORS IN THE RISE OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES.

- (1) The rise of the social sciences may be dated from the publication by Adam Smith of "The Wealth of Nations," 1776.
- (2) Some of the leading factors in the rise of the social sciences that may be mentioned here are:
 - a. When hand-driven tools were supplanted by power-driven machinery and the home gave way to the factory as the unit of production during the industrial revolution, new and complex social phenomena began to develop which demanded scientific attention.
 - b. Efforts of sympathetic but temporary enthusiasts (Fourier, Robert Owen) stimulated more permanent methods of overcoming social obstacles.
 - c. The influence of idealists and critics (Ruskin, Carlyle) offered little toward social solutions but helped to create a broad horizon for the social sciences.
 - d. The efforts of the "Christian Socialists" in England (Maurice, Kingsley) made clear the need of studying society in the light of ethics.
 - e. Political economy's early emphasis on wealth-getting activities created a desire for a conspectus of all the constituent factors of social progress.
 - f. The theory and practice of modern charity has furnished evidence that scientific relief of dependents,

defectives, delinquents rests on the science of the independents, effectives, and efficients.

- g. Socialism in its revolutionary assaults has mercilessly exposed social evils, but has failed to provide scientific programs of social procedure.
- h. Religion since its direct entrance into the field of social service has been asking for a body of reliable social facts.
- i. Modern attempts to secure social legislation with reference to employers' liability, child and woman labor, social insurance, inheritance and income taxes, etc., are making necessary the organization of scientific social statistics and data.
- j. The evolution in means of transportation.
- k. The achievement of political democracy.
- l. The segregation of classes and the development of class consciousness and of group morality.
- m. The phenomenal growth and concentration of population in large cities, etc.

(3) In response to these and to other needs, the social sciences are attempting an analysis of the factors in social progress.

Suggested Readings :

Small and Vincent, *Introduction to the Study of Society*, 23-53.

Blackmar, *Elements of Sociology*, Bk. VII.

Carver, *Sociology and Social Progress*, Ch. I.

Ely, *Outlines of Economics*, 644 ff.

Vincent, *The Province of Sociology*, Amer. Jour. Sociol., 1 :473-491.

SECTION 3. THE FACT OF SOCIAL PROGRESS AND THE FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS.

(1) This course of study starts with the assumption that social progress is a fact.

- a. (Several illustrations of the progress of society in the past few thousand years may be suggested here.)

(2) This course attempts to analyze social progress on the basis of the general sets of factors in social progress and to give a survey of these sets of factors in so far as they are societary factors :

- a. Physical and Geographical, i. e., the influences of the physical and geographic environment in determining the direction of social progress.
- b. Biological, i. e., the influences of the laws of heredity, variation, natural selection, evolution, and of the instincts in social growth.
- c. Hygienic and Eugenic, i. e., the influences of the health factor—in improving the physical functions, by directing the biological forces of heredity, by control over disease, by rational development of the play activities.
- d. Genetic, i. e., the influences of the sex and parental impulses as manifested generally in the development of the family.
- e. Economic, i. e., the influences of the food-interest and of the impulse for gain as they have developed in connection with the wealth-getting and wealth-using activities of man.
- f. Political and Legal, i. e., the influences of the protection interest as manifested in group organizations, (e. g., tribes, nations) for protection against other groups and against the anti-social members of the given social group,—in order to promote life, liberty, and happiness.
- g. Ethical and Religious, i. e., the influences of the desire to do right as seen in the individual's attempts to develop higher standards of conduct in himself and in others, and the influences resulting from human attempts to give finite life its Infinite rating.
- h. Aesthetic, i. e., the influences connected with the expressions of the feelings through ornamentation, sculpture, music, painting, poetry, etc.
- i. Intellectual, i. e., the influences arising directly from the development of mind.

j. Associational, i. e., the influences of the special set of factors which are the causes and the results of human association.

(3) On the basis of the above mentioned ten sets of factors, the course closes with a brief summary of the nature of social progress.

Suggested Readings:

- Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. XII.
- Ross, Foundations of Sociology, 149-81.
- Stuckenberg, Sociology, 1:186-258, and in Carver, Sociology and Social Progress, Ch. VI.
- Small, General Sociology, 443-81.
- Ward, Outlines of Sociology, Ch. I.
- Spencer, The Study of Sociology, Ch. I.

Bibliography of the Suggested Readings for Chapter I:

- Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm.; 1905.
- Carver, T. N., Sociology and Social Progress, Ginn.; 1905.
- Dealey, J. Q., Sociology, Silver, Burdett; 1909.
- Ellwood, C. A., Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Appleton; 1912.
- Ely, R. T., Outlines of Economics, Macm.; 1908.
- Giddings, F. H., Elements of Sociology, Macm.; 1909.
- Ross, E. A., Foundations of Sociology, Macm.; 1905.
- Small, A. W., General Sociology, Univ. of Chicago Pr.; 1905.
- Small, A. W., The Meaning of Social Science, Univ. of Chicago Pr.; 1910.
- Small, A. W. and G. E. Vincent, An Introduction to the Study of Society, American Book; 1894.
- Spencer, H., The Study of Sociology, Appleton; 1893.
- Stuckenberg, J. H. W., Sociology, Putnam; 1903.
- Ward, L. F., Outlines of Sociology, Macm.; 1909.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter I.

1. A Study of Social Progress in the United States.
2. History of the Social Progress of your own City.
3. Your Analysis of the Nature of Social Progress.

4. The Migration of Social Supremacy Among the Nations.
5. The Contrasts Between Sociology and Socialism.
6. The Relation of Sociology to Christianity.
7. The Relation of Sociology to the Special Social Sciences.
8. Carlyle as a Forerunner of Social Science.
9. History of Communism in the United States.
10. A Study of Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*.
11. Ten Best Examples of Social Progress.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 4. MAN'S RELATION TO THE EARTH.

- (1) The highly favored position of the earth in the solar system.
- (2) Dependence of the inhabitants of the earth on the solar system.
 - a. The day, the year, the seasons thus determined.
 - b. The safety of all sea-faring vessels related to the positions of the stars.
 - c. The ideas of "permanence" and "order" spring from such phenomena as the regular daily rising of the sun.
 - d. Measurements of the earth possible only by referring to the heavenly bodies.
 - (a) Latitude and longitude, accurate maps of continents and oceans, boundaries of nations and estates reckoned by astronomical measurement.
 - e. Man dependent on and limited by the great laws of the universe over which he has no control and the nature of which he does not fully understand.
- (3) A glimpse at the orderly and world-embracing process by which the once uninhabitable globe has come to be man's well-appointed home.
 - a. The earth underwent a long series of transformations before the appearance of man.
 - (a) Oldest strata of rocks show no signs of the presence of life.
 - (b) After the first evidences of life, higher and higher strata of rock formations indicate the appearance of higher and higher forms of life.

- b. A few, simple stone implements found in the deposits belonging to the glacial epoch,—a silent testimony to the appearance of man.
- c. Then came the long struggle between earth and man before historical times and man's final supremacy over other forms of life.
- d. Man's adjustment to the elevations and depressions of the earth's crust.
 - (a) Less than one-fifth of the earth's surface inhabitable.
 - (b) That one-fifth inhabitable by virtue of a mantle of rock-waste of varying thickness and quality.
- e. The student of social science has an advantage over the geologist.
 - (a) The latter finds the world completed so far as need concern him.
 - (b) But the social scientist deals with a growing world.
 - (c) He has a right not only to speculate about the processes of its growth, but also to try to accelerate its growth.

Suggested Readings:

Semple, Influences of a Geographic Environment, Chs. I-IV.
Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. II., Ch. II.
Buckle in Carver, Sociology and Social Progress, Ch. X.
Fairbanks, Introduction to Sociology, Pt. I., Ch. III.
Shaler, Man and the Earth, Chs. I, XIII.

SECTION 5. THE INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHIC AREA AND LOCATION ON HUMAN SOCIETY.

(1) Small, naturally defined areas always harbor small groups of markedly individual peoples.

- a. Islands, peninsulas, mountain valleys are bars to expansion and develop close contacts between group members.

- b. Involve handicap of numerical weakness of population.
- c. Easily encompassed by invaders.
- d. Belgium, Holland, Switzerland exist today as distinct nations only on sufferance.

(2) In a small area, a group is likely to overestimate its own size and importance.

- a. In a small area, people tend to measure distance with a yard-stick.
- b. Judea clung with provincial bigotry to the narrow, tribal creed and repudiated the larger faith of Christ.
- c. Plato's ideal democracy restricted its free citizens to 5,040 heads of families, all living within reach of the agora.
- d. In small New England, the provincial point of view has persisted.
 - (a) Acquiesced in the occlusion of the Mississippi River to Trans-Allegheny settlements by Spain in 1787.
 - (b) Later opposed the Louisiana Purchase.
 - (c) Opposed the acquisition of the Philippines.

(3) Larger the area, the surer the guarantee of permanence.

- a. Means abundant command of the resources of life, varied pursuits, and varied wants.

(4) Larger the area under one political control, the greater the economic and political independence.

- a. A vast territory has enabled the United States to maintain a protective tariff.
- b. Russia's immense area is the military ally on which she can most surely count.
 - (a) The long road to Moscow converted Napoleon's victory into a defeat.

(5) Larger the area which a civilized nation occupies, the more numerous are its points of contact with other peoples.

- a. Less likely to have a premature crystallization of its civilization.
- b. Ultimately means access to those multiform international relations which the ocean highway confers.

- c. Generous territories breed a wide outlook upon life, a continental element in the national mind.
- (6) Area itself, important as it is, must yield to location.
 - a. No one thinks of size, when mention is made of Gibraltar, Jerusalem, Athens.
 - b. Holland owed her maritime supremacy from the 13th to the middle of the 17th century to her exceptional location at the mouth of the great Rhine highway.
 - c. Location of Phoenicians made them the middlemen between Orient and Occident.

Suggested Readings:

- *Semple, *Influences of a Geographic Environment*, Chs. V.-VII.
- Semple, *American History and its Geographic Conditions*, Ch. I.
- Brigham, *Geographic Influences in American History*, Ch. I.
- Mill, *International Geography*, Ch. V.
- Shaler, *Nature and Man in America*, Ch. VI.

SECTION 6. THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF OCEANS, COAST LINES, AND INLAND WATERWAYS.

- (1) The eternal unrest of moving waters has knocked at the door of human inertia.
 - a. Flow of stream and ebb of tide have sooner or later, stirred the curiosity of land-born barbarians.
 - b. Rivers by mere force of gravity have carried man to the shores of the common ocean.
 - (a) Then he has followed timidly or involuntarily the ocean current or the trade-wind.
- (2) The sea which brought him, bars him from his old home.
 - a. Wastes of water are effective barriers.
- (3) The sea promotes many-sided development.
 - a. Sea induces nautical achievements in man.
 - (a) Simple floats and rafts first, then devices to secure displacement, now great floating sea monsters.
 - b. Sea develops special classes of industry.

- (a) Earliest were the classes of fishermen.
- (b) Fisheries are the training schools which furnish sailors for the merchant marine.
- c. Sea provides wealth of experiences.
 - (a) Had proportion of land and water been reversed, world would have been poorer.
 - (b) Branches of human family would have resembled each other more closely but at the cost of development.
- (4) Best geographic advantages are at mouths of rivers.
 - a. Participation in the cosmopolitan civilization characteristic of coastal regions.
 - b. Opportunity for both inland and maritime commerce.
 - c. The fertile, alluvial soil yields support for dense populations.
 - d. Politically, the up-country may be bottled up at the mouth of a large river.
- (5) River highways are bases of commercial pre-eminence.
 - a. They are nature-made paths into new countries.
 - b. Cheapness of river-travel tends to check the construction of high-roads and railroads.
 - (a) Later to check railway freight rates.
 - (b) In South and in Central America, railroads are still mere adjuncts of river and coastwise routes.
 - c. The inland waterways movement has lately been restarted.
 - d. Pacific trade will continue to be exploited from the Atlantic basis because Atlantic peoples have wider and more accessible lands as the basis of their maritime operations.
- (6) A river system is a system of communication.
 - a. Rivers unite; they are poor boundaries.
 - b. Every river tends to become a common artery feeding all the life of its basin.
 - (a) Makes a bond of union between people living among its remoter sources and those settled at the mouth.

(7) Indentations of land by the sea open up the interior of continents.

a. Every protrusion of an ocean artery into the heart of a continent makes that heart feel the life on far-off, unseen shores.

Suggested Readings:

*Semple, *The Influences of a Geographic Environment*, Chs. VIII-XI.

Semple, *American History and Its Geographic Conditions*, Chs. II., XIII., XIX.

Brigham, *Geographic Influences in American History*, Ch. IV.

Gregory, Keller, and Bishop, *Physical and Commercial Geography*, Chs. I., IV.

Murray, J. and H. R. Mill, *International Geography*, Ch. VI.

SECTION 7. THE SOCIAL INFLUENCE OF PLAINS AND DESERTS.

(1) Well watered lowlands invite expansion—ethnic, commercial, political.

a. They make for uniformity of life conditions, for monotony of climate as well as of relief.

(2) Plains are not favorable to early development.

a. Their lack of contrasting environments, their wide extent and absence of barriers, put chains on progress.

b. Show a paucity of varied geographical conditions and of resulting contrasts in the population.

c. Larger eastern half of Europe embraced in the plains of Russia and Poland shows monotony in every aspect of human life.

d. Sameness leaves its stamp on everything.

(3) In boundless, arid steppes, nature has made the homes of restless, rootless people.

a. Migration is permanent.

b. While the people move, progress stands still.

- c. Waterless wastes permit no accumulation of productive wealth beyond increasing flocks and herds.
- d. Not only aridity, but excessive cold condemns a people to nomadic life.
- e. Population must forever remain too sparse to attain historical significance.
- f. Constant movement reduces impedimenta to a minimum.
 - (a) No furniture in their tents.
 - (b) Keep their meager supply of clothing and utensils neatly packed.
 - (c) Only desirable form of capital is that which transports itself—flocks and herds.
- g. Seasonal migration.
 - (a) Move down rivers in winter to lowlands; up rivers in summer to the hills and mountains.
- h. Deserts make marauders.
 - (a) Seasons of unusual drought give rise to marauding expeditions.
 - (b) Predatory excursions result from want.
 - (c) Robber is a title of honor.
 - (d) Constant practice in riding, scouting, use of arms, physical endurance tested by centuries of exertion and hardship, make every nomad a soldier.
 - (e) Hazardous life of the desert makes the Arab the bravest of mankind.
- i. Nature-made necessity of scattering in small groups induces in the nomad a spirit of independence.
 - (a) The Bedouin is personally free.
 - (b) Political organization is lacking.
 - (c) Desert is the last part of earth's surface to yield to conquest from without—conquest pays only as a police measure.
- j. Power of fasting developed—one meal of a European would suffice for six Arabs.
- k. Checks to population—three children constitute a large family among the Bedouins.

- (4) Deserts and steppes lay an arresting hand on progress.
 - a. No alteration in customs or mode of life from age to age.
- (5) Desert-born genius for religion.
 - a. Mind, finding scant material for deduction, falls back upon contemplation.
 - b. From immense monotony of their environment comes the impression of unity.
 - c. Inevitable gravitation towards monotheism.
 - d. Three great monotheistic religions of the world are closely connected in their origin and development with the deserts of Syria and Arabia.

Suggested Readings:

- *Semple, Influence of a Geographic Environment, Ch. XIV.
- Brigham, Geographic Influences in American History, Chs. V, VIII.
- Gregory, Keller, Bishop, Physical and Commercial Geography, 38-48.
- Salisbury, Physiography, 16-32.
- Chisholm, Handbook of Commercial Geography, 15-30.

SECTION 8. THE SOCIAL EFFECTS OF A MOUNTAIN ENVIRONMENT.

- (1) Man always feels the pull of gravity.
 - a. Maintenance of life in high altitude is always a struggle.
 - b. At first, mountains become mere transit districts.
 - c. Often remain as great inert masses in the midst of active historical lands.
- (2) Mountain passes are nature-made thoroughfares.
 - a. Passes draw to themselves migration, travel, trade, war.
 - b. Traversed alike by undisciplined hordes and by organized armies, by wagon-trains and by transcontinental railroads.
- (3) Mountain boundaries are rarely by nature impartial.

- a. A wide zone of food supply and habitation on the gentler slope.
- b. They lower the bars to the people on one side, hold them relentlessly in place to the people on the other side.
- c. Himalayas are flanked by the teeming population of India; on the other side are the scattered nomadic tribes of Tibet.
- d. Western side of the Scandinavian range (Norway) has the warm air of the Atlantic westerlies; on the eastern side, Sweden feels all the rigor of a sub-artic climate.

(4) Mountain peoples the world over have resorted to terrace agriculture.

- a. Mountainous islands develop terrace tillage in its most pronounced form.

(5) Utilization of mountain pastures for stock-raising is almost universal.

- a. They have generally remained communal property.

(6) High altitudes with their long, severe winters stimulate industries in the home.

- a. Almost everywhere native mountain industries are in a high state of development.
- b. Consists of carved wood, artistic metal work in silver and copper, the famous Kashmir shawls, finest violin strings in the world.

(7) Marauding propensities are marked among all retarded mountain peoples of modern times.

- a. They solve the problem of deficient food by raiding valleys and lowlands.
- b. Conquest of mountain peoples always expensive—invader has always two enemies to fight, nature and the armed foe.

(8) Political dismemberment is the inherent weakness of mountain peoples.

- a. Political consolidation is always forced upon them from without.
- b. Swiss Republic is result of threatened encroachments from outside.

- c. Every aspect of environment makes against social integration.

(9) Mountains are often museums of social antiquity.

- a. "To have and to hold" is the motto.
- b. Antiquated races and languages abound.
- c. Religion is orthodox to the last degree.
- d. Judean mountains performed the inestimable service for the world of keeping pure and undefiled the first and last great gift of the desert—a monotheistic faith.
- e. The mountain dweller is essentially conservative.
- f. Little reaches him from the outside to stimulate him.
- g. Has a suspicion toward strangers.
- h. His loves and hatreds are pronounced.
- i. When he comes down to the plains, he is a formidable competitor because of his strong muscles, unjaded nerves, iron purpose, indifference to luxury.

Suggested Readings :

*Semple, Influences of a Geographic Environment, Chs. XII., XVI.

Semple, American History and its Geographic Conditions, Chs. V, VIII.

Brigham, Geographic Influences in American History, Ch. III.

Gregory, Keller & Bishop, Physical and Commercial Geography, 50-54, 62-65.

SECTION 9. THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE ON SOCIETY.

- (1) Climate fixes the boundaries of human habitations.
 - a. In Arctic latitudes, high altitudes, arid regions,— by drawing the dead-line to all life.
- (2) Moisture is essential to all that life upon which human existence depends.
 - a. Grazing capacity and wheat yield of southern Australia increase almost regularly with every added inch of rainfall.

- b. Deserts which yield nothing are purely climatic phenomena.
- (3) Nature has fixed the mutual destiny of tropical and temperate zones,—as complementary regions of trade.
 - a. Hot belt produces numerous things that never grow in colder countries.
 - b. A much shorter list of products coupled, however, with greater industrial efficiency is restricted to the temperate zone.
- (4) Climate influences man indirectly.
 - a. Dictates what crops he may raise.
 - b. Has it in its power to affect radically the size of his harvest.
 - c. Decides which flocks as herds he shall keep,—reindeer, camels, llamas, horses, or horned cattle.
 - d. It decides the character of his food, clothing, dwelling, and ultimately of his civilization.
- (5) In general, there is a close correspondence between climate and temperament.
 - a. Northern peoples of Europe are energetic, provident, serious, thoughtful, rather than emotional, cautious rather than impulsive.
 - b. Southerners of sub-tropical Mediterranean basin are easy-going, gay, emotional, imaginative.
 - c. Man of the colder habitat is more domestic.
 - d. With the southerner of the Tropics, it is "easy come, easy go"—he therefore suffers more frequently in a crisis.
 - e. Everywhere a cold climate puts a steady hand on the human heart and brain—it gives an autumn tinge to life.
- (6) History reveals a steady influx from colder into tropical and subtropical lands.
 - a. Followed by enervation and loss of national efficiency.
 - (a) Due to debilitating heat.
 - (b) Partly to easier conditions of living.
 - b. Germans who recently have colonized southern Brazil show marked deterioration.

(7) Man was born in the Tropics, but grew up in the Temperate zone.

- a. Where he has remained in the tropics, he has generally suffered arrested development.
- b. His nursery has kept him a child.
- c. The tropics have been the cradle of humanity, the temperate zone has been the cradle and school of civilization.

Suggested Readings:

*Semple, Influences of a Geographic Environment, Ch. XVII.
Dickson, H. N. in Mill, International Geography, Ch. VII.
Gregory, Keller & Bishop, Physical and Commercial Geography, Chs. V., VII.
Bowman, Forest Physiography, Ch. IX.
Huntington, Changes of Climate and History, Amer. Hist. Rev., Jan. 1913, 213-232.

SECTION 10. CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES.

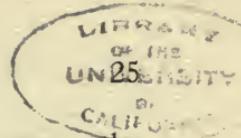
(1) The very magnitude of natural resources has made the United States wasteful.

- a. Many resources have already been so exhausted that a few years will see an end of their use in large commercial quantities.
- b. While coal and iron will last longer, yet when gone they can never be replaced.
- c. The time has come when the United States can no longer wastefully use her resources without interfering with future development.
- d. While other nations have passed into decay, none has ever exhausted its resources so early in its history.

(2) Conservation of the soil—the greatest natural resource.

- a. The soil is a source of all life,—from it comes all food, the materials with which homes are built and from which clothing is made.
- b. The formation of soil from beneath is scarcely more than a foot in 10,000 years.

An Introduction to the Social Sciences.



- e. Germany has been cultivated nearly 1800 years, the soil is naturally not so productive nor the climate so favorable yet the wheat-yield there averages more than twice as much as in this country.
- d. Conservation means that the United States will not allow her farms to lose \$500,000,000 in value yearly by letting the rich top-soil drain off into the rivers.
- e. Conservation means that the land shall not be robbed steadily of the elements that produce good crops and that nothing be put back into the soil.

(3) Conservation of coal,—in the rush of a few people to turn coal into money, one-fourth to one-half of it is wasted.

- a. Water-power remains unused while millions of tons of coal are burned annually in doing the work that water-power might do better.

(4) Conservation of water-power,—estimated that there is now running idly over falls, dams, etc., over 30,000,000 horse-power of energy.

- a. Enough power is wasted to run every factory, turn every wheel, move every electric car, supply every light and power station in the country.
- b. Geographical Survey states that by storing the flood-waters and regulating the flow of streams, the large rivers may be made to furnish 150,000,000 horse-power.

(5) Conservation of forests,—the forests of the United States will not last longer than about thirty years.

- a. Of all wood cut, fully two-thirds is wasted in the forests, left to decay or destroyed by forest fires.

(6) Conservation doesn't mean the locking up of natural resources, nor a hindrance to real progress in any direction, but a careful use of these resources in the light of the needs of future generations.

Suggested Readings:

- Van Hise, Conservation of Natural Resources, Pt. V.
- Gregory, Checking the Waste, Chs. I-IV.
- Coman, Industrial History of the United States, Ch. XI.
- Bogart, Economic History of the United States, Ch. XXXIII.

Pinchot, Fight for Conservation, 40-52.

Pinchot, A Primer of Forestry, Pt. I.

Shaler, Man and the Earth, Chs. II, III.

SECTION 11. A SUMMARY OF THE PHYSICAL AND GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS.

- (1) A people and their land, each unthinkable without the other.
 - a. A land is fully comprehended only when studied in the light of its influence upon its people, and a people cannot be understood apart from their field of activities.
 - b. Wars, which constitute so large a part of political history, have usually been aimed more or less directly at acquisition or retention of territory.
 - c. The land occupied by a primitive tribe or a highly organized state is the underlying material bond holding society together.
 - (a) The broader this physical base, the richer its resources, and the more favorable the climate, the greater may be its ultimate historical significance.
 - d. When a state has taken advantage of all of its natural conditions, these conditions become a part of the state.
 - (a) They modify the people and are modified in turn by the people—till the people cannot be understood apart from their physical and geographic bases.
- (2) Every advance to a higher state of civilization has meant a progressive decrease in the amount of land necessary for the support of the individual.
 - a. And a progressive increase in the relations between man and his habitat.
- (3) Progress involves an increasing exploitation of natural advantages.

- a. Man multiplies his dependencies upon nature.
- b. While increasing their sum total, he diminishes the force of each.
- c. The Delaware Indian depended upon the forests alone for fuel, the Pennsylvania citizen today has six or seven choices.
 - (a) But fuel was a necessity to the Indian only for warmth and cooking; while today, it is a necessity in the manufacture of nearly every article that the modern Pennsylvanian uses.
- d. Man's dependence on nature has become more far-reaching, though less conspicuous, and especially less arbitrary.

(4) Man forms a partnership with nature, contributing brains and labor while she provides the raw material in ever more abundant forms.

- a. As a result, civilized man receives a better and better living than the savage who like a mendicant accepts what nature is pleased to dole out and lives under the tyranny of her caprices.

Suggested Readings:

*Semple, *Influences of a Geographic Environment*, Ch. II.
Shaler, *Nature and Man in America*, Ch. V.

Mill, *International Geography*, Ch. I.

Patten, *New Basis of Civilization*, Ch. I.

Bibliography of the Suggested Readings for Chapter II.
Blackmar, F. W., *Elements of Sociology*, Macm.; 1905.

Bogart, E. L., *Economic History of the United States*, Longmans; 1912.

Bowman, I., *Forest Physiography*, Wiley; 1911.

Brigham, A. P., *Geographic Influences in American History*, Ginn; 1903.

Carver, T. N., *Sociology and Social Progress*, Ginn; 1905.

Chisholm, G. G., *Handbook of Commercial Geography*, Longmans; 1908.

Coman, K., *Industrial History of the United States*, Macm.; 1910.

Fairbanks, A., *Introduction to Sociology*, Scribner's; 1910.
Gregory, Keller and Bishop, *Physical and Commercial Geography*, Ginn; 1910.
Mill, H. R., *International Geography*, Appleton, 1909.
Patten, S. N., *The New Basis of Civilization*, Macm.; 1907.
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Pinchot, G., *A Primer of Forestry*, Bul. 24, U. S. Dept. of Agricult.; 1900.
Salisbury, R. D., *Physiography*, Holt; 1909.
Semple, E. C., *The Influences of Geographic Environment*, Holt; 1911.
Semple, E. C., *American History and its Geographic Conditions*, Houghton, Mifflin; 1903.
Shaler, N. S., *Nature and Man in America*, Scribner's; 1891.
Shaler, N. S., *Man and the Earth*, Chautauqua Pr.; 1907.
Van Hise, C. R., *The Conservation of Natural Resources in the United States*, Macm.; 1910.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter II.

1. The Effect of Climate and Geography on the Development of your City.
2. A Social Study of the Kentucky Mountaineers.
3. Electricity as a Social Instrument.
4. The Geography of the Civil War.
5. Mountain Barriers as Social Divides.
6. Geographical Distribution of Cities.
7. Geographical Distribution of Railroads.
8. A Comparison of Tropical Peoples with Temperate Peoples.
9. The Social Uses of Chemistry.
10. River Valleys as Paths of Migration and Commerce.
11. The Work of the Forestry Service.
12. The Life and Work of Gifford Pinchot.
13. Social Achievements of the Department of Agriculture.
14. History and Methods of Operation of the Weather Bureau.

CHAPTER III.

BIOLOGICAL FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 12. BIOLOGICAL LAWS AND SOCIETY.

- (1) Introduction to the biological factors.
 - a. At this point, transition is made from a study of the inorganic to a study of the organic factors in society.
- (2) Organisms are distinguished from inorganic substances by the following characteristics.
 - a. Organization: the power to make over inorganic substances into living tissues.
 - b. Motion: the power of spontaneous movement in response to stimuli.
 - c. Sensation: the power of being sensitive to external stimuli.
 - d. Reproduction: the power of producing new beings like themselves.
 - e. Adaptation: the power of responding to external conditions in a way useful to the organism.
- (3) The different phases of universal evolution.
 - a. Cosmic evolution: deals with the development of world's and how the earth came to its present stage.
 - b. Organic evolution: deals with the evolution of living forms, of which man represents one group.
 - c. Evolution of mind: deals with the use of the keenest intelligences among organisms.
 - d. Social evolution: deals with the development of the highest types of associating groups.
- (4) Factors at work in organic evolution.
 - a. The multiplication of organisms in some geometric ratio through reproduction.
 - (a) It is not infrequent for a people to double its numbers every twenty-five years.

- b. Continuity of the species or racial type is secured through heredity—the law that like begets like.
- c. Every new form born in the organic world, while it resembles its parents and species, is subject to variation within certain limits.
 - (a) Man is the most variable, in this sense, of all organisms.
- d. The struggle for existence.
 - (a) Individuals in all species are born in large numbers; competition results, the fittest survive, the inferior perish.
 - (b) Thus the type is raised through natural selection, i. e., through the elimination of the unfit.
- e. Besides struggle and conflict, co-operation is a factor in organic evolution.
 - (a) Perhaps the chief source of this co-operation is to be found in the rearing of offspring.
 - (b) Only in human social life does co-operation attain its full development.
 - (c) Human society tries to fit as many as possible to survive; not only to survive, but to live well.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood; Sociology and Modern Social Problems, 27-51.
- Ward, Elements of Sociology, Ch. III.
- Wallace, The World of Life, Ch. I.
- Jordan and Kellogg, Evolution and Animal Life, Ch. III.
- Dealey and Ward, Text-book of Sociology, Ch. X.

SECTION 13. HEREDITY: A CONSERVING FACTOR.

- (1) Heredity: The law that like begets like.
 - a. (Several simple illustration may be given here.)
- (2) In describing the facts of hereditary resemblance between successive generations, two methods are available.
 - a. The Mendelian formula which deals with individuals separately and with the transmission of single characteristics.

b. The statistical which deals with the group as the unit and considers the individual in the general average.

(a) In many ways the former is of greater importance because of its more exact and more particular nature.

(3) The Mendelian law of heredity.

a. Characteristics are transmitted as single or "unit characters."

b. In such transmission, certain characteristics are likely to be "dominant" while others are "recessive."

c. Illustrated by the transmission of color in the Andalusian fowl.

d. Pure bred now means pure bred with reference to certain traits only.

(a) An individual may be pure bred in certain of his traits and hybrid in others.

e. A pure bred may be produced by a hybrid mated with another hybrid.

(4) Statistical description of heredity.

a. Regression: with a few exceptions, offspring deviate less than their parents from the average of the whole group.

b. The coefficient of heredity—a number which expresses the average closeness and regularity between all the plus and minus deviations from the group average.

c. Susceptibility to tuberculosis is double the normal rate among first-born children.

d. When both parents are congenitally deaf, 26% of the offspring are deaf (Fay, 1898).

(a) If the parents are related (belong to the same deaf mute strain), the proportion of deaf-mute children is greater.

e. "Old age" or longevity, as such, is not inherited, but traits such as absence of defects of bodily structure, vital resistance to the commoner virulent forms of disease are inherited.

- (a) When these are coupled with favorable environmental conditions—then “old age” is possible.
- f. “Pauperism” and “crime” are not necessarily inherited, but mental defectiveness, feeble-mindedness, etc., which may lead to pauperism and crime are subject to laws of heredity.

Suggested Readings:

- Kellicott, The Social Direction of Human Evolution, 77-130.
- Davenport, Heredity in Relation to Eugenics, Ch. II.
- McKim, Heredity and Human Progress, Ch. III.
- Doncaster, Heredity, Ch. VIII.
- Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Child Study, 289-300.

SECTION 14. VARIATION: A MEANS OF PROGRESS.

- (1) Every organismal characteristic whether “unit” or complex is subject to variation.
 - a. The variation may be due to circumstances within the germ-cell, or to the environing conditions, or to both.
- (2) Variation appears during an organism’s period of development.
 - a. At the beginning of its existence every individual (among higher organisms) has the form of a single organic cell—the germ-cell.
 - (a) It shows a comparatively slight degree of differentiation of structure, and may be of microscopic proportions.
 - (b) The parts of the germ-cell bear no actual or visible resemblance to the parts of the organism into which they rapidly develop.
 - b. Somehow the characteristics of the germ-cell lead to other characteristics, and these to still more complex characteristics.
 - (a) Until a period of comparative changelessness is reached when we say that development is completed.

- c. This development is fundamentally a period of reaction between the germ and its surrounding conditions.
 - (a) It is during this development that variations appear.
- (3) Two distinct kinds of variation: variability and mutation.
 - a. Variability—small fluctuations in any and every characteristic centering about an average or mean.
 - (a) Index of variability—possible to determine the average amount by which each individual of the group deviates from the group average.
 - (b) Possible to determine quite definitely the general distribution as to future height of a thousand individual children.
 - (c) Men are twice more variable in weight than in stature.
 - b. Mutations—these are variations proper.
 - (a) Mutations are abrupt changes of the average or type condition to a new condition or value which then becomes a new center of fluctuating variability.
 - (b) Essential difference between variability and mutations is with reference to the inheritance of the variation in case of mutation.
 - (c) In the case of variability, the offspring tend to be nearer the group average than the parents; in the case of mutations, the offspring have approximately the same average as their immediate parents.
- (4) By means of mutations and possibly by variability new types are formed, and hence new influences appear in the course of social progress.

Suggested Readings:

Wallace, *The World of Life*, Ch. VII.

Doncaster, *Heredity*, Chs. II., III.

McFarland, *Biology*, Ch. XI.

Jordan and Kellogg, *Evolution and Animal Life*, Chs. II., IX.

SECTION 15. MAN'S RELATION TO THE FAUNA AND FLORA OF THE WORLD.

(1) Animals used by man.

- a. As servants and friends of man—out of 150,000 species of animals, but forty-seven have been domesticated.
- b. Animals used as food—all races have fed in part at least, on the flesh of animals, either raw or cooked.
 - (a) Mammals and birds that are wholly carnivorous have been rejected as food by man.
- c. Clothing from animals—hair of certain mammals is used as a fabric for cloth, the wool of sheep being most valuable.
 - (a) Likewise the fine-spun covering of the larvae and chrysalids of a white moth—silk.
 - (b) Furs and skins of many animals formed the chief clothing of primitive man and still largely used by two extremes in society: the fashionable and the primitive.
 - (c) Most valuable is the fur of the North Pacific sea-otter, a single skin often bringing \$1,000.
- d. Animals as ornaments—includes furs and plumes, but the most valuable ornament derived from any animal is the pearl from the pearl-oyster.
- e. Animal products used in the arts—leather, oil, ivory, whalebone, ambergris.

(2) Plants used by man.

- a. As fuel—nearly all fuel is of vegetable origin.
- b. As timber—three-fourths of the world's lumber supply is furnished by about forty species of cone-bearing trees (the pines) and by the leading broad-leaved trees (oaks, hickory, etc.).
 - (a) Full value of thoroughly seasoned woods is nearly proportional to their weight per cubic foot.
 - (b) In recognition of the service of trees, forestry has developed—includes scientific tree-cutting,

prevention of forest fires, exterminating destructive fungi and harmful insects, tree-planting.

- c. Plant products used in manufacture—in tanning, as dyes, varnishes.
- d. Medicinal plants formed the basis of the work of the medicine men in all primitive groups, and are still important.
- e. Plants used as fertilizers—clovers and alfalfas, due to the power which their root tubercles have of utilizing the nitrogen of the air.
- f. Plant fibres—used in making thread, cordage, rope; while from the hairs which clothe the seed of the cotton plant all cotton goods are manufactured.
- g. As food products for animals—especially the grasses and clovers.
- h. As food products for human use—includes grains, seeds, fleshy pulps, edible leaves, shoots, tubers and roots.
 - (a) Grain of the wheat most important because of its palatableness, high food value, and ready digestibility.

Suggested Readings :

*Jordan, Kellogg and Heath, Animal Studies, Ch. XXVII.

*Bergen and Davis, Principles of Botany, Ch. XLI.

Gregory, Keller and Bishop, Physical and Commercial Geography, 250-95.

Thomson, in Mill, International Geography, Ch. VIII.

Shaler, Nature and Man in America, Ch. IV.

SECTION 16. MICRO-ORGANISMS AND HUMAN LIFE.

- (1) General classification of micro-organisms—(a) molds and fungi; (b) yeasts and processes of fermentation; (c) bacteria; (d) available knowledge of invisible micro-organisms.
- (2) Micro-biology of the soil.

- a. Under the attack of bacteria and other micro-organisms, the various organic debris in the soil are split into relatively small chemical fragments.
 - (a) Carbon is restored to the air as carbon dioxide and nitrogen is changed into ammonia and nitrates.
- b. Work of the micro-organisms hastens the weathering of the rock-particles and makes available thereby the mineral portion of plant-food.
- c. Micro-organisms live in the root-tuberles of the clovers and alfalfa and are an indispensable factor in returning nitrogen to the soil.

(3) Microbial diseases of plants—in the form of blights attacking alfalfa, oats, pear-trees, the rot of potato, the wilt of sweet corn, etc.

(4) Micro-biology of special industries.

- a. In preserving foods by cold temperature and by chemicals, the methods are intended to retard or inhibit the activity of micro-organisms.
- b. In preservation of foods by pasteurization and sterilization and by drying, the destruction of the decomposing micro-organisms results.
- c. Alcohol products the result of fermentation due to bacteria.
- d. Raising of dough in bread-making caused by production of carbon dioxide by yeast organisms.
- e. Lactic acid microbes cause milk to turn sour—this change dreaded by the milk-man is used by the cheese-maker.

(5) Microbes as scavengers—one of the principal functions of microbes.

- a. Microbes in upper layers of the earth, and to a less extent in air and water, oxidize waste organic matter to carbon dioxide, water, etc.

(6) Pathogenic bacteria—causing disease in man—pneumonia, typhoid, tuberculosis, diphtheria, etc.

- a. Main sub-divisions — spherical forms, rod-forms, spiral forms.

b. In chapter IV of this Syllabus on the Hygienic and Eugenic Factors in Social Progress, Section 19 is devoted to a fuller discussion of the disease-producing bacteria.

Suggested Readings:

Marshall, Microbiology, Pt. I. Ch. III.

Woodhead, Bacteria, Chs. I, II.

Jordan and Kellogg, Evolution and Animal Life, Ch. XVII.

McFarland, Biology, Ch. XIV.

Davison, The Human Body and Health (Advanced) Chs. VI., VII.

SECTION 17. BIOLOGICAL BASES OF THE SOCIAL INSTINCTS AND IMPULSES.

(1) The instincts refer to inherited tendencies which are the essential motive powers of all action.

- a. Racial characters that have been slowly evolved in the process of adaptation of species to their environment.
- b. Insect life affords perhaps the most striking examples of purely instinctive action, also the young squirrel burying nuts, the terrier yapping at the sight of his quarry.

(2) The impulses of self-preservation or of survival are in general the controlling animal impulses.

- a. Their outward expression may be temporarily checked by the intrusion of other highly organized impulses.
- b. Impulses of attacking, fighting, pugnacity—the condition of their excitement is opposition to the free exercise of any impulse.
- c. Impulse of flight, to flee from danger, is necessary for the survival of almost all species of animals.
- d. On the basis of the food impulse, lower animals and man have powerful incentives to search actively for nutriment.
 - (a) Becomes in man one of the bases of the highly complex impulse for gain.

- (3) The sex instinct is most likely to intrude on the survival impulses.
 - a. Holds the same relation to the preservation of the race as do the survival impulses to the preservation of the individual.
- (4) Parental impulses lead to permanent affections, and around them the institution of the family has developed.
 - a. A relatively pure form of monogamy is ascribed to certain higher animals, especially to certain species of birds.
- (5) Impulses of curiosity are displayed by many of the higher animals.
 - a. Native excitant of the instinct would seem to be any object similar to, yet perceptibly different from, familiar objects habitually noticed.
 - b. In men of certain type, it may become the main source of intellectual energy and effort.
- (6) Gregarious impulses—have played a great part in moulding animal and human group-life.
 - a. Their fundamental nature is indicated by the extreme and frantic distress shown by animal forms when separated from their own groups and by the satisfaction shown in being one of a herd.

Suggested Readings:

McDougall, Social Psychology, Chs. II, III.

Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Child Study, Chs. IV-XIII.

Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. IX.

Jordan and Kellogg, Evolution and Animal Life, Ch. XX.

Bibliography of Suggested Reading for Chapter III.

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Davenport, C. B., Heredity in Relation to Eugenics, Holt: 1911.

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Kellicott, W. E., The Social Direction of Human Evolution, Appleton: 1911.

Kirkpatrick, E. A., Fundamentals of Child Study, Macm: 1908.

Marshall, C. E., Microbiology, Blakiston: 1911.

McDougall, W., Social Psychology, Luce: 1909.

McFarland, J., Biology, Saunders: 1910.

McKim, W. D., Heredity and Human Progress, Putnam: 1901.

Mill, H. R., International Geography, Appleton: 1909.

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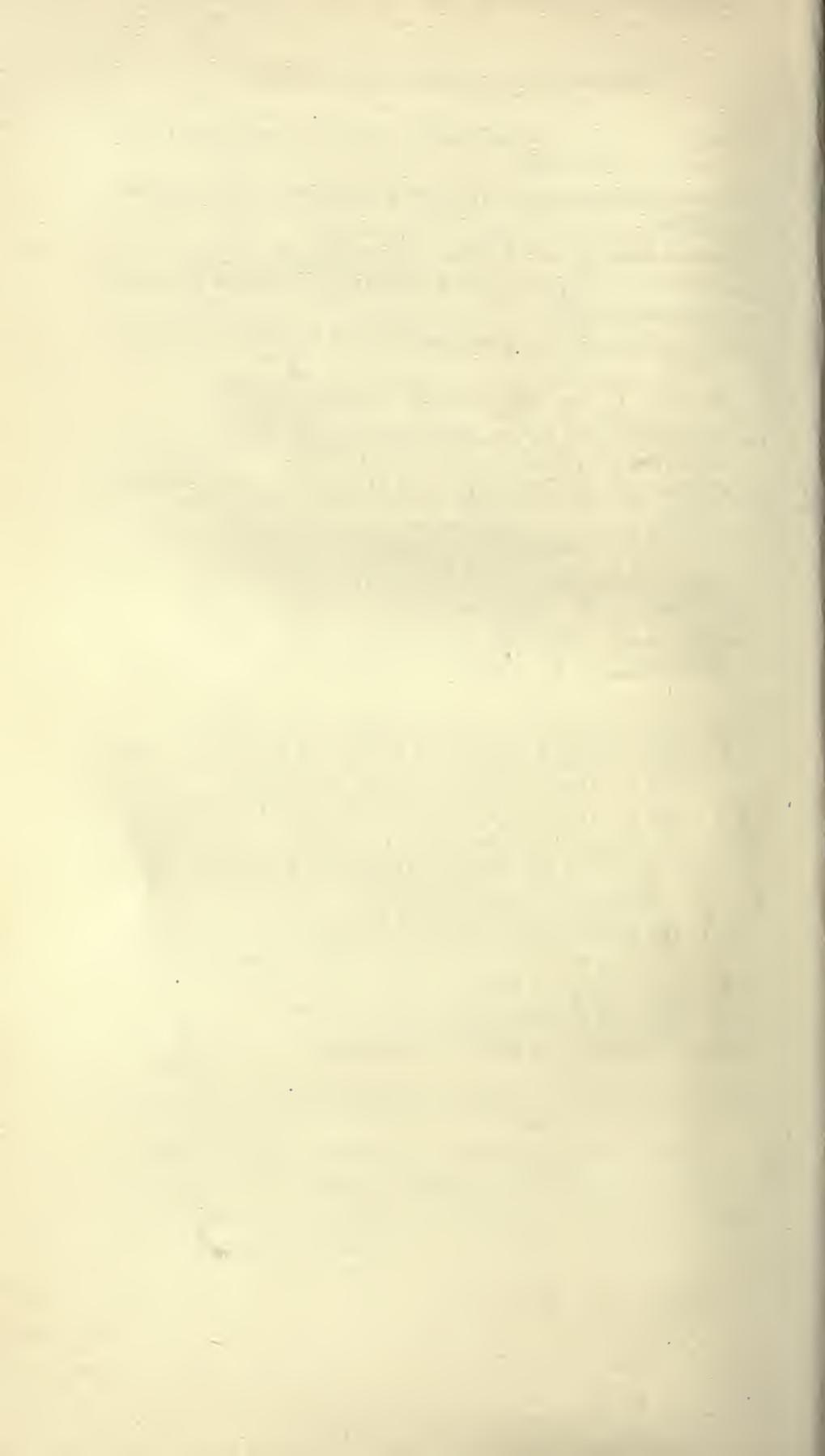
Wallace, A. R., The World of Life, Moffatt: 1911.

Ward, L. F., Elements of Sociology, Macm: 1898.

Woodhead, G. S., Bacteria, Scribner's: 1897.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter III.

1. The Leading Contribution of Biology to Social Advance.
2. The Service of the Microscope to Mankind.
3. The Survival of the Fittest as Illustrated in Human Life.
4. The Social Characteristics of Animals.
5. A Study of the Relative Influence of Heredity and Environment in your own case.
6. The Organic Conception of Society.
7. A Study in Economic Zoology (or in Economic Botany).
8. The Biological History of the Race.
9. Heredity and Sociology.
10. The Biological Side of Immigration.



CHAPTER IV.

HYGIENIC AND EUGENIC FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 18. THE SELF-PRESERVATION IMPULSES.

- (1) Introductory—the factors in social progress described in the preceding sections are external to man.
 - a. The factors in social progress to be described in the remaining chapters of this syllabus are subjective—they are based on human impulses, instincts, desires, interests—are psychological in nature.
- (2) The primary interest of every man, as of every animal, is in sheer keeping alive (anthropologically, not finally).
 - a. Doubtful if it is ever observed alone in normal human beings.
 - b. If life be worth living, it is logical to yield to the instinct to prolong it so long at least as any satisfaction can be got from it or given by it.
 - c. In giving way to this instinct, people strive to increase the number of their days—either by rational methods or by resort to unintelligent measures.
 - (a) Methods of satisfying the physical functions may extend from unrestrained animalism to the perfection of a perfect body as an instrument of highest life.
- (3) Rational methods of physical self-control—by observing the laws of hygiene and sanitary science—by developing the tendency to play, etc.
 - a. The eugenic method—guaranteeing to all future individuals the right of being well-born.
 - (a) Since the physically and mentally defective, the stunted and the starved are a drag upon and arrest or defect to social progress.
- (4) Ratio between the health desire and all other human desires is infinitely variable.

- a. One day a man will forego all for the privilege of continuing to exist.
- b. Again he may jauntily throw away his life for a principle or a sentiment or a passion.

(5) Social Progress calls for races of physically splendid men.

- a. Mental and social life stand in the most intimate relation conceivable to physical development of individuals.

Suggested Readings:

Bigelow, Applied Biology, Pt. IV.

Herter, Biological Aspects of Human Problems. Bk. II.

Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Child Study, Ch. VI.

McDougall, Social Psychology, Chs. VII, XI.

SECTION 19. SOCIAL WASTE THROUGH BACTERIAL DISEASES.

(1) Plagues, pestilences, and epidemics are the most striking examples of influences affecting public health.

- a. As late as 1892, the wealthy city of Hamburg was terrorized by a severe epidemic of Asiatic cholera.
- b. Still more recently Ithaca, N. Y., Butler, Penn., Rockford, Ill., have been ravaged by the plague of typhoid fever.

(2) Explanations of plagues.

- a. Savages attributed them to evil spirits, demons.
- b. Even for civilized peoples, plagues have been mysterious in origin.
- c. Now known to be outbreaks of infectious and contagious diseases.
 - (a) Due to invasions of the body by micro-organisms.
 - (b) Each such disease has its own special microbe.
 - (c) Not the disease but the parasitic microbe which are "catching."
 - (d) Epidemics may occur when public food supplies, water supplies, milk supplies, steamers,

coaches, and other public places become infected with disease.

- (3) Microbes as disease germs—for these discoveries, society is indebted to Pasteur (French biologist), Koch (German bacteriologist), and others.
- (4) Some microbic diseases and their prevention.
 - a. Tuberculosis—so-named because of certain characteristic cheesy tubercles found in the lungs and other tissues.
 - (a) Until discovery of tubercle bacillus in 1882 by Koch, the disease was generally regarded as readily inherited.
 - (b) Caused only through the entrance of the microbe into susceptible bodies—by personal contact, by objects handled or mouthed (food, drinking cups, towels), by dust containing germs expectorated, by the moist breath in coughing, or even in talking.
 - (c) The disease moves to a fatal issue only when the vital resistance proves unequal to the defense.
 - b. Typhoid fever—caused by typhoid bacillus, discovered by Koch about 1879—a slow fever requiring months for its convalescence.
 - (a) Bacilli taken into the human body by drinking water contaminated by sewage containing the microbes, through milk contaminated by dirty hands of careless and unclean milkers, through oysters growing in localities where city sewage is emptied.
 - c. Diphtheria—disease of the throat—bacillus diphtheriae finds lodgment in throats of susceptible persons.
 - (a) Multiply there and secret meanwhile a poisonous substance or toxin.
 - d. Malarial fever—a world-famous disease—by far the most important of all tropical diseases.

- (a) In 1880 the malarial microbe was discovered, and in 1899 whence it came and how it was transmitted from victim to victim was discovered—in a genus of mosquito, anopheles.
- e. Yellow fever, greatly dreaded in the tropics, now attributed to a microbe, conveyed by a mosquito, stegomyia by name.
- f. Lockjaw or tetanus—due to the tetanus microbe, grows best in absence of oxygen, in deep or lacerated wounds—made by toy pistols, etc.

Suggested Readings:

Marshall, Microbiology, Div. VII., Ch. I.

Sedgwick, Principles of Sanitary Science, Ch. III.

McFarland, Biology, Ch. XV.

Flexner, "Natural Resistance to Infectious Diseases and its Reinforcement," Smithsonian Report, 1909: 723-38.

SECTION 20.—OVERWORK AND FATIGUE.

- (1) A vast difference in the degree of wellness—many well men cannot run a block for a street car without feeling completely tired out.
- (2) Origin of the problem of fatigue to be found in connection with the Industrial Evolution.
 - a. With rise of factory system, monotonous speeded-up processes developed.
- (3) Fatigue—the most common and subtle danger of occupation.
 - a. It may be regarded as a chemical process—a continual tearing down of muscle and nerve tissues without building them up.
 - b. In this way, fatigue substances or toxins come to circulate in the blood, poisoning brain and nervous system, muscles, glands and other organs.
 - (a) When blood is transferred from an exhausted dog to a frisky one, the latter immediately droops and shows all the signs of fatigue.

(4) Objective causes of fatigue.

- a. Long hours—in the steel industry, the working day is usually twelve hours, seven days in the week.
- b. Monotonous, speeded-up operations—at many machines a quick pressure of the foot and accompanying hand-movements are repeated “40 times a minute, 24,000 times a day.”

(5) Results of fatigue.

- a. Fatigue and industrial inefficiency—poorer work and less work is done in the last hours of a day’s labor than in the earlier hours.
- b. Fatigue and contagious diseases—an overworked laboring man or woman is more susceptible to pneumonia, tuberculosis, typhoid fever than is a person whose vital resistance is normal.
 - (a) A typical succession of events is first, fatigue, then colds, then tuberculosis, then death.
- c. Fatigue and nervous diseases—long hours of labor and feverish haste leads to nervous breakdown.
- d. Fatigue and future generations—the children of over-worked parents tend to be physical weaklings.
- e. Fatigue and morals of working people—long hours of monotonous labor increase the susceptibility of the human organism to harmful temptations.
 - (a) The exhausted worker tends to neglect all family duties.
- f. Fatigue and industrial accidents—the liability to accident increases with the daily hours of labor.
 - (a) Investigation: In the second hour of work, 9,000 accidents occur; in the third hour, 12,000; in fourth hour, 15,000 accidents occur.

Suggested Readings:

Goldmark, *Fatigue and Efficiency*, Ch. I.

Nearing, *Social Adjustment*, Ch. X.

Bogardus, *Fatigue and Industrial Accidents*, Amer. Jour. Sociol., 17:206-22.

Favill, *The Toxin of Fatigue*, Survey, 24:767-73.

SECTION 21. THE DURATION OF THE WORKING LIFE.

- (1) The desirability of a lengthened life.
 - a. Society needs balanced men—with broad views and mature judgments.
 - b. The years from forty-five to sixty-five should be the most valuable years from the social view-point.
 - c. Society trains for a working period of forty years, but in hundreds of thousands of cases, life-work is artificially stopped almost before it has begun.
 - d. If the length of average life were doubled, the population would in a generation double without any increase in the birth-rate.
 - e. Increase of longevity would also enable the man at the margin to care more adequately for those dependent upon him.
 - f. It is abnormal that any individual should be cut down in the prime of development.
 - (a) With the potentialities of existence unrealized and the character growth of life barely begun.
- (2) The length of the working life.
 - a. Extends from about the age of sixteen until the time of death.
 - b. Out of every thousand males living at the age of fifteen, 556 will have died before the age of sixty-five as the result of either accident or disease (Hoffman).
 - (a) Thus society loses more than one-half of its working force before the end of the working period.
 - c. Each decade marks an advance in the age at which children may go to work.
 - (a) The constant tendency to raise the age of entrance upon life activities shortens the working period.
 - d. Overstrains and “speeding up” processes of modern industries throw men out of work earlier than formerly.

- (a) Thus the working period is being shortened at both ends.
- e. People do not at present die natural deaths.
 - (a) Many of the deaths even between the ages of seventy and seventy-four are not due to old age, but to accident and preventable diseases (Metchnikof).
- f. Industry is doubly wasteful of life and efficiency—(Campbell).
 - (a) "May be charged not only with the extravagance of killing and maiming yearly thousands of workers.
 - (b) But it seems to choose for its victims many in the prime of manhood, normally with years of life before them, and with obligations but partially discharged to wives and children."

(3) A new social attitude.

- a. While the general philosophy of modern life bids us turn away from a scene of premature death, with a feeling of sorrow for the dead,
- b. The new social attitude requires that every such scene inspire us, first of all, to prevent similar and succeeding catastrophes.

Suggested Readings:

Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. IX.

Campbell, Industrial Accidents and Their Compensation, Ch. II.

Fisher, Report on National Vitality.

Hoffman, Annals of American Academy, 27:465-90.

Metchnikof, Prolongation of Life, Ch. I.

SECTION 22. HYGIENE AND SOCIAL ADVANCE.

(1) General classification of causes of disease.

- a. Constitutional and environmental, inside and outside, intrinsic and extrinsic.
- b. Premature death is common; old age is rare—due either to defects in mechanism or to environmental disease.

- (2) As sanitary science (and public control of health conditions) will lessen environmental diseases, so hygiene (and eugenics) may eliminate in a large part constitutional defects.
 - a. Hygiene is of special importance to a man physically weak.
 - b. Horace Fletcher in his 46th year, rejected for life insurance, later obtained it and on his 50th birthday bicycled 190 miles.
- (3) Hygiene of environment—man is normally an outdoor animal.
 - a. Civilization has brought him indoors and increased his susceptibility to many diseases.
 - b. "Where sun and air enter seldom, the physician enters often."
 - c. John Muir: "The minute I get into a house, I get into a draft and the first thing I know, I am coughing and sneezing and threatened with pneumonia and am altogether miserable."
- (4) Hygiene and nutrition—scientific study of diet has only recently begun.
 - a. Three essential classes of energy-giving foods: proteins or nitrogenous foods (lean meat), fats (butter), carbohydrates such as sugar, starch.
 - b. Foods needed to form body material, phosphate of lime for bone and nerve-tissue.
 - c. A man of ordinary labor needs daily, food which contains about 100 grains of proteid, 50 grains of fats, 500 grains of carbohydrates.
 - (a) Hence to put foods together in proper proportion and form, a scientist and artist is needed, and the kitchen becomes a scientifically conducted laboratory.
 - d. The hygiene of nutrition warns against poisons.
 - (a) Several English life-insurance companies have found by statistics (for about forty years) that abstainers from alcoholic liquors have a death-rate about 23% lower than non-abstainers.

(5) Hygiene of activity—an evil of the modern division of labor is that the sedentary worker does not get necessary activity.

- a. An animal lives a more healthy life than the average man.

(6) Observation shows that many of world's most famous vital men and women have virtually, through hygienic methods, made over their constitutions from weakness to strength.

- a. Examples: Roosevelt, and others.

Suggested Readings:

Stewart in Pyle, Personal Hygiene, 315-48.

Sedgwick, Principles of Sanitary Science, Ch. I.

Taft, Address at the 15th Intern. Cong. on Hyg. and Demog.,
Science, n. s., 36; 504-8.

Wile, Survey, 29: 146-52.

SECTION 23. THE PURE FOOD MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES.

(1) No such problem existed when food consisted chiefly of raw materials.

- a. When food comes under artificial preparation and is imported from foreign countries and from other sections of the same country, the problem has arisen.
- b. England and Germany have created "public analysts," who must approve the quality of food before it can be sold.

(2) Agitation by consumers in the United States—began about 1882.

- a. In one year in Pennsylvania it was found that over 87,000,000 pounds of oleomargarine were sold as butter.
- b. Investigations of infant mortality in New York showed that milk was poisoned by preservatives, weakened by being watered, and was often an ideal breeding place for bacteria as a result of unsanitary handling.

- c. Deaths in the Spanish American War were traced to "tainted meat."
- (3) State legislation preceded national legislation—as in many other cases.
 - a. Massachusetts was the first state to adopt a pure food law.
 - (a) The rate of adulteration decreased in ten years, from 57% in 1883 to 31.2% in 1894.
 - b. By 1896, thirty-two of the states had adopted pure food laws.
 - (a) Their lasting influence was nullified because goods that did not conform to the standard of purity of one state were shipped into another.
 - (b) Foreign goods, pure or impure, were shipped in.
 - (c) Hence the need of a Federal Law.
- (4) The fight for national legislation.
 - a. The Bureau of Chemistry began investigations as early as 1885.
 - b. The Oleomargarine Act (passed, 1887) placed a tax of ten cents a pound upon all oleomargarine sold as butter.
 - c. The Investigation Act (passed, 1890) prohibited the importation of adulterated meats.
 - d. The Interstate Pure Food Commission (organized, 1897) drew up a model pure food bill.
 - e. Senate (1899) appointed a committee (Dr. Wiley as head) to investigate the sanitary conditions in the Chicago packing houses.
 - f. When the first general pure food bill was introduced in the Senate (1899), it was regarded as "a huge joke."
 - (a) The success of the manufacturing interests in fighting the bill, a national disgrace.
 - (b) Not passed until February, 1906; Dr. Wiley was opposed by the "interests" in enforcing the law.

- (c) The law fails in that (1) it makes unfortunate compromises with the "interests"; (2) the use of "distributive" names permits frauds, etc.
- (d) The law succeeds in that (1) labels have become more honest, (2) the use of harmful preservatives has been restricted, (3) over three thousand cases of adulteration have been prosecuted, etc.

(5) Present need is for more accurate and speedy enforcement of the present law, and for the further co-operation of public opinion in getting a socially adequate law.

Suggested Readings:

Wiley, "Progress and Rgress under the Food Law," *Good Housekeeping*, October, 1912.

Dunn, "Dr. Wiley and Pure Food," *World's Work*, Oct., Nov., 1911.

The Pure Food and Drugs Act of 1906.

Mason, "The Vital Question of Pure Food," *Rev. of Reviews*, Jan., 1900.

SECTION 24. SANITATION AND SOCIAL ADVANCE.

- (1) History of public sanitation—no system of sanitation until middle of last century.
 - a. First sewage system established in England in 1847.
- (2) Sanitation and water supply.
 - a. Chicago emptied sewage into Lake Michigan until Drainage Canal was opened.
 - (a) But lakes, especially small lakes, do not make cesspools and good wells at the same time.
 - b. Once common method was for one city to pour its sewage into a river and another city down-stream a few miles would take out water for drinking purposes.
 - (a) Results: epidemic of cholera in Hamburg, 1887, and of typhoid in Ithaca, 1903.
 - c. But pathogenic bacteria tend to die out in river and lake water.

- (a) Temperature too low—lower than in human body.
- (b) Food supply for bacteria too scanty.
- (c) Hostile bacteria and harmful mineral salts.
- d. Filtration methods of control are under rapid development.

(3) Sanitation and milk supply—milk is peculiarly susceptible to disease germs.

- a. Bacteria die out in water, but thrive in milk.
- b. A glass of ordinary unclean milk contains millions of bacteria, harmless perhaps to adults, but may cause death to young children.
- c. Certified milk—unheated milk which has been tested and found to contain only a few bacteria.
- d. Pasteurized milk—heated to temperature of about 165° F. for twenty minutes—most pathogenic bacteria are killed.
- e. Sterilized milk—boiled until all germs are dead—but so much boiling hurts the quality of fresh milk.

(4) Sanitation and other food problems—adulteration of foods.

- a. Milk most subject to adulteration—by removing best part.
 - (a) Reported that in St. Louis in one year 1600 gallons of cream were removed daily by milkmen.
 - b. Allspice has been found to contain as much as 85% of wheat, and of nut shells.
 - c. Labels are often wholly deceptive—"aqua" used instead of "water."
 - d. French sardines—may be caught off the coast of Maine.
 - e. Canned salmon—with apologies to the swordfish.
 - f. Coffee—berries—make in a mold and not grown on a bush.
 - (a) Reported in 1905 six firms regularly engaged in the manufacture of coffee-bean making machinery.
 - g. Beneath the beautiful exterior of the soda fountain may be enthroned a host of frauds.

(5) Sanitary science is just beginning to organize its forces.

- a. Calls on the civil engineer, the chemist, bacteriologist, physician, statistician—all united in a Public Health Association.

Suggested Readings:

Godfrey, *The Health of the City*, Chs. I-V.

Smith, *Social Pathology*, 282-90.

Sedgwick, *Principles of Sanitary Science*, Ch. IV.

North, "Sanitation in Rural Communities." U. S., Bur. Educ. Bul. 24: 19-25.

Davison, *The Human Body and Health*, Ch. V.

SECTION 25. THE PROGRESS OF MEDICAL SCIENCE.

- (1) Earliest trace of medicine leads back to the "medicine man."
 - a. In Egypt, records of medical practitioners, 4000-3000 B. C.
 - b. Moses gave the Hebrews one of the first known codes of public hygiene.
 - c. Among the Greeks, Aesculapius (about 1250 B. C.) and Hippocrates (460 B. C.) are the most renowned; the latter explained disease on the basis of the "Four Humors."
 - d. Prejudice caused Constantine to enforce a decree closing all medical institutions.
 - e. To Arabians is credited (from 7th to 13th centuries, the Dark Ages) the preservation of a distinctly medical science based on a clinical study of diseases.
 - (a) The belief that plagues and epidemics are due directly to the wrath of the gods or to Divine decree still held sway.
- (2) The period from 1400 to 1700 A. D. marks the beginning of attempts to study human anatomy—such a school was founded at Bologna.
 - a. In Florence, post-mortem examinations were begun, to find the causes of death-producing diseases.

- b. William Harvey (1578-1657), the first great English physician—his life-work centered around a study of the heart and the circulation of the blood.
- c. The religious wars prevailing in Europe afforded a wide field for the development of practical surgery.

(3) In the 18th century, Edward Jenner gave to the world one of the greatest life-saving discoveries in preventative medicine, namely, vaccination.

- a. Discovered the cowpox virus.

(4) In the 19th century, one of the most important of modern discoveries was that of anaesthesia, by use of oxide gas, ether, chloroform.

- a. Marked by the rapid development of medical schools and medical journals.
- b. Surgery has had two periods, pre-Lister and post-Lister.
 - (a) Lister early suspected the parasitic nature of gangrene cases.
 - (b) Proved that bacteria are a cause of gangrene, and that their presence is unnecessary.
 - (c) As anaesthesia prevented suffering during an operation, Lister saved humanity from much suffering which followed the operation.
- c. Pasteur, a French chemist (1822-1895), developed the Pasteur treatment of hydrophobia.
- d. Koch, perhaps the greatest of this trio of pioneers in preventative medicine—a German physician (1843-1910).
 - (a) Noted as the discoverer of the bacilli of tuberculosis (1882) and of cholera (1883), of the anti-toxins of diphtheria and tetanus, of the medium by which “sleeping-sickness” is transmitted.
- e. Alexis Carrel, one of the greatest living explorers in the field of medicine today (1913), at Rockefeller Institute.
 - (a) Has taken a chicken’s heart, kept it beating for months outside of the body, then placed it

in cold storage, and when removed, it went on beating.

- (b) His hope: to be able to remove all healthy organs of the dead and supplant by them, the diseased organs of the sick.
- (c) Through his work we stand on the threshold of a new era that is going to stop all preventable deaths, and that will step aside only for old age.

(5) In the words of Hippocrates the Great, 3000 years ago, the science of medicine may be summed up: "A social art with a social mission."

Suggested Readings:

Billings, "Progress of Medicine," 19th Century, 338-48, 1901.
Mayo, "Our New Attitude Toward Disease," Outlook, July 20, 1912.
Mayo, "Big Battles Against Disease," Outlook, Dec. 24, 1910.
Encyclopedia Medica, Vol. VII, 377-400.

SECTION 26. PLAY AS A CONSTRUCTIVE FACTOR IN SOCIETY.

- (1) Attitudes toward play.
 - a. Alcuin—father of mediaeval education—looked upon play as worthy of being suppressed.
 - b. Until recent times, considered a relatively harmless way of occupying children who are too young to be doing anything useful.
 - c. Play turns out to be a first-class educational and socializing process.
 - (a) The play impulse is nature's way of developing body, mind, and character.
- (2) Theories of play.
 - a. Schiller--Spencer—play is expression of surplus energy.
 - b. Recapitulation theory—child, playing, is living over rapidly the past stages of the race.

- c. Groos—play is preparation for life.
 - (a) The plays of a kitten prepare not for grazing but for catching mice.
 - (b) The plays of a girl look forward to motherhood.
- (3) Play has been commercialized.
 - a. The cheap seaside resorts vie with one another to furnish their patrons with new sensations.
 - b. "All sorts of death-inviting devices shoot people like catapults down grades, up grades and through the air."
 - c. For ages the suggestibility of the spectator-crowd has been exploited for vicious commercial or other selfish ends.
 - d. Society cannot tolerate a situation which leads to the economic and moral exploitation of children and which causes deterioration of all its members in general.
 - e. Must be legal regulation, enforcing a minimum standard, and constructive action for recreation of a social sort.
- (4) In recognition of this play-need, intelligent philanthropic agencies and municipalities have established many recreations distinctively social.
- (5) The social value of play.
 - a. Develops quickness and accuracy of perception.
 - b. Co-ordination of the muscles—which puts the body at the prompt service of the mind.
 - c. Rapidity of thought and promptness of decision.
 - d. Respect for others, habit of co-operation, self-sacrifice for the good of a group—in team-play.
 - (a) In no other place can a child so realize for himself the value of law as on the playground.
 - e. Can not be wholesome living without socialized play.

Suggested Readings :

Patten, New Basis of Civilization, Ch. VI.

Lee, "Play as Medicine," Conf. Char. and Corr. 1911 : 354-64.

Weir, "Playground Movement in America," Nat'l Educ. Assn., 1911: 925-33.

Braugher, "Play and Social Problems," Annals, Mar. 1910, 109-17.

Gulick, "Population and Recreation and Public Morality," Annals, July, 1909, 33-42.

SECTION 27. THE EUGENIC METHOD OF SECURING A HEALTHIER RACE.

- (1) Eugenics: a study of the agencies under social control that may improve or impair the racial qualities of future generations, either physically or mentally.
 - a. To cause the useful classes in the community to contribute more than their present proportion to the next generation.
 - b. To cause the useless, vicious classes to contribute less than their present proportion.
 - c. Purposive direction of the forces of heredity and variation.
- (2) At present a distinct and positive relation between civic undesirability and high fertility.
 - a. One-fourth of the married population of the present generation produce one-half of the next generation.
 - b. Twelve per cent of all the individuals born in the last generation produced one-half of the present generation.
 - c. This small per cent of the population producing the large per cent of next generation is from the lower classes.
 - (a) Everywhere in North Atlantic and North Central states, native white stock is failing to hold its own alongside of the lower grades of foreign stock.
 - d. In 1901, nearly 19,000 imbeciles and feeble-minded in the United States married and were free to multiply their kind.

- (a) Nearly 47,000 lunatics in the same year in the United States were married and legally multiplying their kind.
- (b) The Jukes family of degenerates in New York developed over 1200 members (Dugdale) and cost the state \$1,500,000.
- (3) Biological factors used by Eugenics.
 - a. The raw materials for race improvement are furnished by variation.
 - b. The means of accomplishing results are furnished by heredity.
 - (a) Offspring resemble parents not only in generalities, but even according to certain definite formulas.
 - (b) Many characteristics are units which can be added to races or subtracted from them almost at will.
 - (c) New races can be built up to meet almost any demand.
 - (d) We have both the raw materials and the means for race-improvement.
 - (e) And the ability to direct the evolution of the human race and to save much of the hit and miss and the useless suffering of natural selection.
- (4) Methods of eugenics.
 - a. Careful study of the laws of heredity and variation.
 - b. Segregation by sexes of confirmed criminals, idiots, imbeciles—no chance to reproduce their kind.
 - c. Suggested medical examination prior to marriage as to fitness for that state.
 - d. Oppose vigorously and unmistakably those social practices leading to the limitation of the birth-rate of the desirable, healthy, and valuable elements of society.

Suggested Readings:

Kellicott, Social Direction of Human Evolution, Chs. I, III.
Davenport, Heredity in Relation to Eugenics, Chs. VI-VIII.

Saleeby, Parenthood and Race Culture, Chs. I, II.

Smith, Social Pathology, 290-331.

Ellis, Social Hygiene, Ch. VI.

Galton, Inquiries into the Human Faculty, 194-220.

SECTION 28. THE CONSERVATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES.

- (1) Means intelligent, orderly and efficient use of all the faculties of men as applied to world problems.
- (2) Is essentially the problem of increasing the average length of life.
 - a. In India average length of life is twenty-five years; in Sweden it is about fifty-two years; in New England states it is about forty-five years.
 - b. Hence length of life is dependent on definite conditions which may be modified.
 - c. Length of life depends on (a) absence of constitutional defects, (b) vital resistance to disease, (c) environmental conditions—all are subject to larger control than at present—by eugenic, hygienic and sanitary measures.
 - d. The mortality rate furnishes a fairly good index of vitality.
 - (a) Between 1890 and 1906 New York lowered her death-rate per 1000 from 25.4 to 18.6; and Boston from 23.4 to 18.9; and in the whole registration area of the United States from 19.6 to 16.1.
 - (b) In Havana, the death-rate after the American occupation fell from over 50 to about 20.
 - (c) The tuberculosis death-rate is now in England only one-third of what it was seventy years ago.
 - (d) Death-rate decreased from 40 to 50 per 1000 in 1700 to 15 per 1000 in 1900 in London.
 - e. Life is shortened by premature death and narrowed by invalidity.

- (a) About 3,000,000 persons in the United States continually seriously ill—equivalent to about 13 days per capita per year.
- (b) American railways 1907-8 killed 11,800 persons and injured 111,000 other persons—total killed by accident in the United States 35,000 and 500,000 more, seriously injured.
- (c) Present economic loss due to preventable illness of 750,000 workers losing each \$700 per annum—\$500,000,000.00.
- (d) Present economic loss due to 630,000 preventable deaths per annum at \$1,700 per life—\$1,000,000,000.00.
- (e) Impossible to estimate the suffering and human misery due to preventable cases of illness and deaths.

f. In conserving national vitality and human life, dependence must be placed more largely upon education and legislation.

- (a) Government must compel sanitary conditions of living and work, guard the food supply.
- (b) Above all, the individual must be trained in right habits of living and of rearing a strong and capable race.

Suggested Readings:

*National Vitality, Sen. Doc. No. 419, 61st Cong. 2d Sess.
Van Hise, Conservation of Natural Resources, 364-93.
Allen, Civics and Health, Pts. I, V.
Dix, "Conservation of Mankind," Survey, 27; 1880-90.

Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter IV.:

Allen, W. H., Civics and Health, Ginn; 1909.
Bigelow, M. A. and A. W., Applied Biology, Macm; 1911.
Davenport, C. B., Heredity in Relation to Eugenics, Holt; 1911.
Davison, A., Human Body and Health (Advanced) Amer. Book; 1910.

Ellis, Havelock, The Task of Social Hygiene, Houghton, Mifflin; 1912.

Galton, Francis, Inquiries into the Human Faculty, Dutton; 1911.

Godfrey, H., The Health of the City, Houghton, Mifflin; 1910.

Goldmark, Josephine, Fatigue and Efficiency, Char. Pub. Comm.; 1912.

Herter, C. A., Biological Aspects of Human Problems, Macm.; 1911.

Kellicott, W. E., Social Direction of Human Evolution, Appleton; 1911.

Kirkpatrick, E. A., Fundamentals of Child Study, Macm.; 1908.

Marshall, C. E., Microbiology, Blakiston; 1911.

McDougall, W., Social Psychology, Luce; 1909.

McFarland, J., Biology, Saunders; 1910.

Nearing, S., Social Adjustment, Macm.; 1911.

Patten, S. N., The New Basis of Civilization, Macm.; 1907.

Pyle, W. L., Personal Hygiene, Saunders; 1912.

Saleeby, C. W., Parenthood and Race Culture, Moffat, Yard; 1911.

Sedgwick, W. T., Principles of Sanitary Science, Macm.; 1911.

Smith, S. G., Social Pathology, Macm.; 1911.

Van Hise, C. R., Conservation of National Resources, Macm.; 1910.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter IV.

1. An Argument in Favor of (or opposed to) a National Department of Health.
2. The Fight Against Tuberculosis.
3. History of Eugenics.
4. The Pure Food Movement in the United States.
5. The Life and Work of Dr. Harvey W. Wiley.
6. History of the Playground Movement in the United States.
7. History of the Playgrounds in your City.

8. Medical Examination in the Public School.
9. How is Conservation of Human Resources Most Needed in Your City?
10. The Local Option Movement in the United States.
11. Overwork in the United States.
12. Koch and His Value to Society.
13. History of Medical Science.
14. The United States Public Health Service.

CHAPTER V.

THE GENETIC FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 29. THE ORIGIN OF THE FAMILY.

- (1) The sex instinct is the only human instinct that can be compared with the impulses of self-preservation in respect to its influence on the conduct of man.
 - a. Self-preservation impulses look out for the welfare of the individual; sex-instinct has to preserve the race.
 - b. The institution known as the family, rests upon the great biological fact of sex.
- (2) Psychical differences between the sexes.
 - a. The male tends to expend energy, is more active, hence stronger; the female tends more to store up energy, is more passive and conservative.
 - b. Woman is more generally guided by her instincts and emotions than man, and by a stronger development of the sympathetic impulses.
 - c. In a certain sense, the nature of woman is more fully socialized than man's nature.
 - (a) The average civilized woman represents a superior social type—which the average civilized man is only slowly approaching.
 - (b) But even woman's socialized nature is limited largely to the family and the kindred group.
 - d. But why has man advanced further than woman intellectually?
 - (a) In beginnings of society, woman quietly turned her attention to such industries as were compatible with the settled habits centering about the care of children.
 - (b) Man developed further mentally as a result

of the struggles of hunting and of fighting.

- e. Primitive man by heroic ventures in hunting and fighting gained applause of woman; and woman to gain the applause of man resorted to personal ornamentation.
- (3) But sex alone, could never have produced the family in the sense of a relatively permanent group of parents and offspring.
 - a. To the sex instinct must be added the parental instinct if one would understand fully the origin of the family.
 - b. The child that has the best training in the family, other things being equal, will develop most.
 - (a) Children without family training tend to become degenerate.
- (4) Hence the family has been created by the very conditions of life, by nature.
 - a. Thus it is a God-made and not a man-made institution.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. IV.
- Dealey, Sociology, 110-23.
- Dealey, The Family in its Sociological Aspects, Ch. II.
- Ribot, Psychology of Emotions, Ch. VI.

SECTION 30. THE FORMS OF THE FAMILY.

- (1) Family as an institution has greatly varied in its forms from age to age and from people to people.
 - a. Such variations in form are due partly to the influences of environment, of the state of knowledge, and to causes not yet described.
 - b. Two leading forms: metronymic and patronymic.
- (2) The metronymic—a condition of human society in which relationship was traced through mothers only.
 - a. In which property or authority descended along the female lines rather than along the male lines.
 - b. Arose at a time when physiological connection between father and child was not known.

- c. A more efficient cause of the maternal system was that the mother in primitive times was the stable element in the family life, the constant center of the home.
- d. The Iroquis Indians were essentially a metronymic people.
- e. The metronymic was the primitive system and in comparatively recent times a change was made to the patronymic.

(3) Causes of the breakdown of the metronymic system and of the change to the patronymic.

- a. War—through the fact that women captured in war were held as slaves and regarded as the property of the captor.
- b. Wife-purchase operated in same way.
- c. In pastoral stage of industry—man had charge of the flocks and came to be supreme in all matters.
- d. Ancestor-worship tended to emphasize the power of the patriarch.

(4) The patronymic or patriarchal system seen among the Hebrews, Greeks, early Romans, and down to present day—described historically in section 28.

(5) Present changes—to patronymic-metronymic type in which authority of man and woman is about equal in the family.

(6) The forms of marriage—polyandry, polygyny, monogamy.

- a. Polyandry—union of one woman with several men.
 - (a) Relatively rare—found only in certain isolated sections of the globe—in Thibet, India, Arabia.
 - (b) Causes—female infanticide, scarcity of women, hard economic conditions where labor of one man not sufficient to support a family.
- b. Polygyny—union of one man with several women—found sporadically among all peoples.
 - (a) Must be some degree of wealth and sufficient food supply to enable one man to support several wives.
 - (b) Rests essentially on the degradation of woman.

- c. Monogamy—the prevalent form of marriage in all ages and countries.
 - (a) Secures the superior care of children.
 - (b) Above produces affections of the highest types.
 - (c) The monogamic family is the basis of highest types of permanent social progress.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. V.
- Dealey, The Family in its Sociological Aspects, Ch. III.
- Howard, History of Matrimonial Institutions, Ch. I.
- Giddings, Principles of Sociology, Bk. III, Ch. III.

SECTION 31. THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE FAMILY.

- (1) Among primitive groups, the family was essentially metronymic.
- (2) Among the Hebrew tribes, the patronymic stage had been reached.
 - a. Wife held relatively high position; divorce not common; relations with children excellent.
 - b. No general pathological vices.
- (3) Among Greeks and early Romans, ancestor-worship was at the basis of the family.
 - a. Authority was vested in the father, had absolute power over the members of his group, even to the extent of life and death.
 - b. Polygyny was unknown in early Rome; where no male children, family succession was secured through adoption.
 - c. Early Roman family the most stable type the world has known.
- (4) Decadence of early Roman family.
 - a. Powers of house-father were gradually limited.
 - b. Right to make a will was conceded, which tended to divide the family property that before had remained as a unit.
 - c. Woman was given right to hold property and in 2d century B. C. to divorce husband.

- d. Due also to military development of Rome as a leading power.

(5) Later Roman family life.

- a. By beginning of Christian era, relations between the sexes became very loose.
- b. Marriage changed from a religious bond to a private contract.
- c. Seneca: "Some women reckon their years by the number of their husbands."

(6) Influence of early Christianity upon the family.

- a. From the first, the church worked to abolish divorce.
- b. Marriage came again to be regarded as a religious bond.
- c. Exalted place of woman in the family, though leaving her subject to her husband.
- d. Reaction against pagan sensualism, led to celibacy of the clergy.

(7) Influence of Renaissance.

- a. Separated church from state and again opened the way for divorce.
- b. In protestant countries, celibacy abolished.
- c. Great reformers did not reach a uniform idea concerning marriage—Milton defended divorce, Luther permitted bigamy.

(8) Present tendencies—breaking down not only of paternal but also of maternal authority.

- a. Toward equality of sexes,—intellectual, economic, political.
- b. Marked instability of family life and increase of divorce.
- c. The present is essentially, however, a transitional period, to a higher form of monogamic family life.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. VI.
- Dealey, The Family in its Sociological Aspects, Ch. IV-VI.
- Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. II., Ch. V.
- Howard, History of Matrimonial Institutions, Pt. II.
- Westermarck, History of Human Marriage, Ch. I

SECTION 32. PHYSICAL CONSERVATION OF THE FAMILY: THE HOUSING PROBLEM.

- (1) The housing problem begins when several families are found living in a dwelling intended originally for a single family.
 - a. Every city in the United States has its housing problem: how shall it house its people from a sanitary and social standpoint?
 - b. Only New York has a tenement house problem, but other cities are tending toward New York conditions.
 - (a) Housing conditions in New York City without parallel in civilized world.
 - (b) Over two-thirds of New York City's population live in multiple buildings; 100,000 separate tenement houses; 10,000 tenements of dumb-bell type; 100,000 dark, unventilated living rooms without even a window.
 - (c) 80,000 buildings, housing 3,000,000 people, so constructed as to be a standing menace to the community.
 - c. Housing evils include (a) overcrowding, (b) defective plumbing, (c) taking in of lodgers, (d) sweating system, (e) no ventilation, (f) excessive rents, (g) lack of play space.
 - d. Causes of housing problem.
 - (a) Dangerous ignorance on part of citizens of what is developing within the city gates, and deplorable delay, after recognition of conditions, rectifying them.
 - (b) Greed on the part of those persons who for the sake of larger profits are willing to sacrifice health and welfare of countless thousands.
- (2) Some fallacies in regard to the housing problem.
 - a. That the poor do not want good housing conditions.
 - b. That the people need simply to be reformed and not the industrial and social conditions under which they live.
 - c. That the poor like to be dirty.

- d. That good tenement houses do not pay.
- e. That bad housing means some old building in dilapidated condition.

(3) Function of a housing committee: to ascertain the facts, and to educate the community with regard to the facts and the ameliorative and preventive means at hand.

(4) Enforcement of housing laws: adequate inspection is key-note of successful administration.

- a. Expert photography is often better than an attorney or columns of descriptive matter in securing improvements.

(5) Conclusions:

- a. A model housing law should be secured before building model tenements.
- b. Municipal regulation is better than municipal ownership in the United States.
- c. Legislate for the future as well as for the present.
- d. Keep every city, a city of homes as far as possible; do not let it become a city of tenements.

Suggested Readings:

Veiller, Housing Reform, Ch. I.

Godfrey, The Health of the City, Ch. X.

Dealey, The Family in its Sociological Aspects, Ch. VIII.

Bergen, in Pyle, Personal Hygiene, 365-420.

Riis, Peril and Preservation of the Home, Ch. I ff.

Riis, Battle with the Slum, Ch. I ff.

SECTION 33. THE DEPENDENCE OF WOMEN.

(1) The dependence of women is traditional, and grows out of the physical test of supremacy.

(2) The essence of her present position is either entire sacrifice of herself to supply the material wants of the other members of her family.

- a. Or dependence on others for the gratification of all her wishes.
- b. She consents or is compelled to consent to the standard of moral, social, and industrial obligations which is required of her.

- c. Any desire to become an important factor in the progress of the world is looked upon with disdain.
- d. The wife of the poor man tends to become a machine; of the rich man, an expensive ornament or plaything.
 - (a) In the latter case, she is not a producer, but with the increasing standard of elaborate dressing, often becomes a leading consumer.

(3) Dependence in industry.

- a. In 1910, about 6,000,000 women, 16 years of age and over, were engaged in "gainful occupations."
 - (a) This represents about one-fifth of the women in the country, 16 years of age and over.
 - (b) Over one-half of the number so employed (or more than 3,000,000) are between the ages of 16 and 24.
- b. Without the ballot or effective labor unions to protect themselves, women are largely subjected to the will of the male majority.

(4) Ideas which should be discarded.

- a. That it is as disgraceful for a girl to develop physically, as it is for a boy to atrophy physically.
- b. That every effort should be directed toward the training of a man for the pursuit of an occupation, but that no training whatever should be provided for a girl in making a choice of a father for her children.
- c. That a girl should grow up to be supported in idleness by her husband.
- d. That a woman can develop a character without working.
- e. That the modern American home is to be a castle to be frequently and largely deserted.
 - (a) Or that the American home is simply a lodging house.
- f. That to the average husband, the word "helpmeet" means "second fiddle."

(5) If the women of the future are to be mothers of noble

children and to achieve useful things, the rising generation of women must have three things:

- a. Opportunity to choose a suited occupation, a knowledge of the widest use of leisure time, and effective social self-development.

Suggested Readings:—

*Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. VI.

Ellis, Man and Woman, 389-94.

Ross, Changing America, Ch. V.

Thomas, Sex and Society, 233-314.

SECTION 34. CONSERVATION OF THE CHILD.

(1) "Child labor" usually refers to manufacturing rather than to agriculture.

- a. The great manufacturing states (Penn., N. Y., Mass., Ills.) have the largest numbers of children in manufacturing.
- b. If agriculture be included, the southern states have the greatest totals of child laborers.
- c. Child labor is found chiefly in cotton mills, glass factories, coal mines, agriculture.
- d. Probably 1,750,000 children, 15 years of age and under, who are "gainfully employed" in the United States at the present time.

(2) Things are not really cheap because they cost little money.

- a. Their cost may have been very great because of the necessity of adding the child life that has been expended in their manufacture.
- b. Every person who gets "bargains" that are cheap because they are child-made is partly responsible for child-labor.
- c. If the forces of the dollar win, the child's life is hardened into a money-making machine, grinding for a space, and then giving sway to another.
- d. For every dollar earned by a child under fourteen years of age, tenfold will be taken from his earning capacity in later years (Woodward).

- e. Child labor is undoubtedly cheap labor, but the product is cheaper than the labor involved in its creation.
- (3) Child labor is a process of mind stunting.
 - a. The child is removed from the possibility of an education.
 - b. Grind, monotony, and degeneration are substituted for enthusiasm, play, and life.
 - c. The child's body is forming at fourteen, and its growth should not be marred by imposing upon it the restrictions which come from factory life.
- (4) Child labor is demoralizing.
 - a. The child ceases to be a child in knowledge while he or she is still a child in ideas.
 - b. No adequate home influence or school influence to ward off the dangers.
 - c. The child is pilot, but how easily misguided.
 - d. Is often surrounded with unbearable monotony, bad air, wayward companions, and every other form of undesirable influence.
 - e. The nervous strain is very great; the child is often "speeded up" with the adults.
 - (a) He seeks relief for his strained nervous system in some kind of activity which leads ultimately to the police court.
- (5) Child labor helps to destroy family life.
 - a. The girl in the factory is frequently untrained in the maintenance of a home.
 - b. Factory work makes of the girl a wife and mother incapable by knowledge or training of doing her duty by her children, her home, or her husband.
 - c. It makes of the boy an unskilled worker, incapable of earning large means, and of becoming a worthy father.

Suggested Readings:

- *Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. XIII.
- Adams and Sumner, Labor Problems, Chs. II, XI.
- Pamphlets, National Child Labor Committee.
- Clopper, Child Labor in the City Street, Ch. I.

SECTION 35. LOW STANDARD FAMILIES.

- (1) The low standard family really lives on a low standard.
 - a. 15,000 school children in Chicago alone (7% of all the elementary school children) reported as being underfed, i. e., on a low standard.
 - b. 5,000 children who attend the schools of Chicago are habitually hungry.
 - c. The average prosperous member of the community does not realize what "low standard" means.
- (2) What is a minimum standard of living?
 - a. A study of the budgets of several hundred working-men's families in New York City (Chapin) indicates:
 - (a) An income of \$900 or over probably permits the maintenance of a normal standard, at least so far as the physical man is concerned.
 - (b) For a family of five, a man, wife, and three children under fourteen years of age.
 - (c) On Manhattan Island, the amount needed is practically three dollars a day.
- (3) A compilation of the incomes in workingmen's families in the North Atlantic States (U. S. Bureau of Labor) shows the average total income of the family to be \$660,—below a "living wage."
 - a. As this figure is an average, there must be many families whose total income is far below \$660.
- (4) Competition of the "single man" standard of wages.
 - a. The incoming of immigrants from southeastern Europe tends to establish a low level of the wages of common labor by placing them on a "single man" basis.
 - b. Majority of these immigrants are single men or men whose wives are left in Europe.
 - c. They come from lower standard countries.
 - d. Immigrants from southeastern Europe tend to establish a "single man" foreign standard for American wages.
- (5) Remedies for low standards.

- a. Labor unions are performing an important function as educators of the low standard workmen.
 - (a) Handicapped because the best unions are in the skilled trades.
- b. Minimum wage laws, met with success in Victoria, are being tried in England, introduced in the United States (1912).
- c. Checking of low standard immigration until the country has developed adequate distribution and assimilation.
- d. Education,—hygienic, economic, moral and religious.
- e. The National Consumers' League has been insisting upon the ultimate responsibility of the consumer for low standard conditions of production.
- f. The consumer is ultimately responsible, and he must therefore insist that conditions of decency be maintained.
- g. The public must realize that an employer who pays low wages is anti-social.
 - (a) He is grafting,—on the life and health of the future, lowering vitality, creating social cost.

Suggested Readings:

- *Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. IV.
- Spargo, The Bitter Cry of the Children, Ch. II.
- Devine, Misery and its Causes, Chs. I, V.
- Pamphlets, National Consumers' League.
- Adams and Sumner, Labor Problems, Ch. IV.

SECTION 36. THE INSTABILITY OF THE MODERN FAMILY: DIVORCE.

- (1) Family life at the beginning of the 20th century is in a more unstable condition than at any time since beginning of the Christian era.
 - a. This instability has been most evident in the United States.
 - b. By 1885, this country had more divorces annually than all the rest of the Christian civilized world put together.

- c. In 1905, United States recorded over 67,000 divorces, rest of the Christian world recorded 40,000.
- d. Rate of divorce to the number of marriages in 1905 higher in United States than in other countries in following proportion:
 - (a) In United States, one divorce to every 12 marriages; in Switzerland, one to every 22 marriages; in France, one to every 30 marriages; in Germany, one to every 44 marriages; in England, one to every 400 marriages.
- e. Divorces are increasing in United States faster than population apparently.

(2) Distribution of divorces in the United States.

- a. Higher in cities than in their surrounding country districts.
- b. Divorce rate is about four times as high among childless couples as among couples who have children.
- c. Least among Catholics, then rank Jews, then Protestants, highest among persons of no religious profession.
- d. Much higher among the native whites than among foreign-born.
- e. Two-thirds of divorces are granted on demand of wife.

(3) Grounds for granting divorce.

- a. Some thirty-six grounds for absolute divorce recognized by the laws of the several states.

(4) Causes of the increase of divorce in the United States.

- a. Decreasing influence of the religious idea that marriage is a sacred and not a mere civil institution.
- b. The growing spirit of individualism.
- c. The Woman's Rights movement—woman tends no longer to submit to injustices as formerly.
- d. Growth of modern industrialism, which tends to make home only a lodging-place.
- e. Growth of modern cities—in crowded sections of which a normal home is impossible.

- f. Higher cost of living—many unable to meet demands.
- g. Higher age of marriage—harder to adjust difficulties.
- h. Increasing laxity of laws regarding divorce and especially in the administration of divorce laws.

(5) Remedial measures—restrictions upon the remarriage of divorced parties.

- a. Uniform federal divorce and marriage laws instead of lax and varied state laws.
- b. Development of a strong public opinion through education in regard to the sacredness of marriage as a social institution.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. VII.
- Dealey, The Family in its Sociological Aspects, Ch. VII, IX, XI.
- Adler, Marriage and Divorce, Lect. II.
- Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. VIII.
- Wright, Practical Sociology, Ch. X.

SECTION 37. THE PERVERSION OF THE SEX INSTINCT: THE SOCIAL EVIL.

(1) Discussion of sexual immorality has been a much-avoided subject.

- a. Neglected by the church—posing as the guardian of public and private morality.
- b. Ignored by the school—from which the child should receive the instruction which best fits him for usefulness.
- c. Avoided by the prudish weakness of the parent.
- d. Hence its discussion has been left to the gamins of the street.
- e. Ignorance of sexual hygiene added to the sexual instinct results in a combination productive of as great evil as any scourge that has afflicted mankind.

(2) As a result of the “social evil,” thousands of girls and women are annually set aside, frequently in segregated districts, as a sacrifice.

a. New York City is reported to have, continually, 30,000 such women and girls, the sale of whose virtues and bodies annually returns \$50,000,000 to \$60,000,000.

(a) Of whom 10,000 come from respectable homes, and whose places will be taken by 10,000 little girls now innocently at play.

(3) The social evil is always followed by a special set of diseases.

a. Disabilities, suffering, premature death follows in the wake of these diseases—which fill hospitals and asylums with human wrecks.

b. The busiest specialty of medicine is that which is concerned with these diseases.

c. Most revolting feature of these infections is that they are not confined to immoral men and women—but become the diseases of virtuous wives and innocent children.

(4) Causes of the social evil.

a. Most important cause today is the love of money—for the gain that can be secured.

b. Next most important cause is masculine unchastity.

c. Closely packed population of both sexes in congested sections of our cities—furnishes breeding-places for this evil.

d. Double standard of morality for men and women.

(a) A woman who succumbs to the evil becomes a social outcast.

(b) A man who is equally guilty may remain a social lion and be received in the most polite society.

e. Large proportion of men and larger proportion of women owe their initial debauch to influence of alcohol.

(5) Methods of prevention.

a. Since the majority of women fall before the age of 18 and a majority of infected men become so before 21, the responsibility of society is greater than that of these immature individuals.

- b. Provision of higher forms of recreation to supplant attractions which stimulate sensuality; prohibition of girls and women in saloons and dance-halls.
- c. Education of children in sex hygiene; health requirement for marriage.
- d. Breaking the custom of silence among physicians,— small-pox reported to health officer and quarantined; while social diseases, as virulent and more widespread, and no measures taken to prevent their dissemination.

Suggested Readings:

Ellis, *The Task of Social Hygiene*, Chs. XIII, IX.

Dealey, *Sociology*, 314-27.

Addams, *A New Conscience and An Ancient Evil*, Ch. I.

Taylor, "Story of the Chicago Vice Commission," *Survey*, 26; 239-47.

SECTION 38. FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY IN SOCIAL PROGRESS.

- (1) The family is the primary social structure.
 - a. Since it contains both sexes and all ages, it is capable of reproducing itself, and hence of reproducing society.
 - b. Relations of superior and subordinate, and of equality, which enter so largely into the structure of all social institutions are especially well developed in the family relationships.
- (2) Functions of the family in conserving the social order.
 - a. Chief institution in society for transmitting from one generation to another, social possessions of all sorts.
 - b. Property in the form of land, houses, personal property, is passed from generation to generation through the family.
 - c. Language is very generally transmitted in the family.
 - d. Ideas, beliefs regarding governments, religion, moral standards, artistic tastes, etc., are largely transmitted through the family.

(3) Functions of the family in promoting social advance.

- a. The family is the almost sole generator of altruism in human society.
- b. Upon altruism society depends for every upward advance in co-operation.
 - (a) Hence the family is the chief source of social progress.
- c. Family life is a school for socialization.
 - (a) The family meal, when all members gather together, is just becoming recognized as a great socializing factor.

(4) A problem—modern industry versus the home.

- a. Primitively industry was subordinate to and centered in the home; modern industry is an enormous expansion of primitive house-keeping.
- b. Removal of industries from the family group has often been followed by the removal of the parents and children from the home.
 - (a) And by the practical disintegration of the family.
- c. Subordination of industry to the family is necessary.
 - (a) No sane and stable life until requirements of industry, of wealth-getting are subordinated to the requirements of the family for the good birth and proper rearing of children.

Suggested Readings :

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. III.
- Dealey, The Family in its Sociological Aspects, Ch. I.
- Fairbanks, Introduction to Sociology, Ch. IX.
- Cooley, Social Organization, Ch. XXXI.
- Patten, New Basis of Civilization, Ch. III.

Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter V.

- Addams, J., A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil, Macm.; 1912.
- Adler, F., Marriage and Divorce, McClure, Phillips; 1905.
- Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm.; 1905.
- Carver, T. N., Sociology and Social Progress, Ginn.; 1905.

Cooley, C. H., Social Organization, Scribner's; 1909.
Dealey, J. Q., Sociology, Silver, Burdett; 1909.
Drummond, H., The Ascent of Man, Pott; 1895.
Ellis, H., The Task of Social Hygiene, Houghton, Mifflin; 1912.
Ellwood, C. A., Sociology and Modern Social Problems, American Book; 1910.
Fairbanks, A., Introduction to Sociology, Scribner's; 1910.
Giddings, F. H., Principles of Sociology, Macm.; 1907.
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Howard, G. E., History of Matrimonial Institutions, U. of Chi. Pr.; 1904.
Kirkpatrick, E. A., Fundamentals of Child Study, Macm.; 1908.
McDougall, W., Social Psychology, Luce; 1909.
Nearing, S., Social Adjustment, Macm.; 1911.
Patten, S. N., The New Basis of Civilization, Macm.; 1907.
Pyle, W. L., Personal Hygiene, Saunders, 1912.
Ribot, Th., Psychology of the Emotions, Scribner's; 1911.
Riis, J., Peril and Preservation of the Home, Jacobs; 1903.
Riis, J., Battle with the Slum, Macm.; 1902.
Veiller, L., Housing Reform, Char. Pub. Comm.; 1910.
Westermarck, E., History of Human Marriage, Macm.; 1902.
Wright, C. D., Practical Sociology, Longmans; 1909.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter V.

1. Woman's Contributions to Social Progress.
2. The Social Superiority of Monogamy.
3. Pensions for Mothers.
4. The Work of Women's Clubs.
5. Women in Industry.
6. The Home as Affected by "The Woman's Rights Movement."
7. Women as Citizens.
8. The Family in a Typical Mill-town.
9. Democracy in the Household.
10. Relation of the Family to Crime.

CHAPTER VI.

ECONOMIC FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 39. FIRST STEPS IN INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS.

- (1) Hunger for food constitutes the most common occasion for releasing the power of the will.
 - a. Until appetite is gratified, man has a powerful incentive to search actively for nutriment.
 - b. This enforced search for food has the advantage that effort so spent helps to maintain physical vigor.
- (2) Primitive man lived upon what he could find rather than upon things he could raise or make.
 - a. He gorged and starved, feasted and fasted.
 - b. Beginning of institution of private property appears in the recognition of the individual's right to articles of personal use.
 - c. Private property in land is absent.
 - d. Great advance when man began to exercise foresight by forbearing to eat all on hand.
 - (a) Learned to dry foods in the sun and later by fire.
- (3) "Invention" of fire a great achievement for primitive man.
- (4) Lines of evolution in things invented.
 - a. The rude shelter of boughs and twigs is the ancestor of the marble palace.
 - b. The aboriginal roast, of the costly seven-course banquet.
 - c. The digging-stock, of the twenty-furrow plough.
 - d. The carrying-strap, of the Overland Limited.
 - e. Transition from houseless, unclothed beings to "billionaires."

- (5) Invention of countless tools—man the only tool using animal.
 - a. For cutting (knives), for abrading (scrapers), for fracturing (hammers), for perforating (needles, awls), for grasping (tongs), for joining (nails), etc.
- (6) Remarkable advance was made when animals were domesticated.
 - a. In the dog, man had an assistant in the chase, if necessary, a food supply.
 - b. Others served as beasts of burden, food supply, etc.
 - c. Domestication may have developed in regions where considerable progress had been made in hoe-culture.
 - d. As this knowledge spread, certain tribes became and remained pastoral nomads.
 - (a) Fixed abode is not possible; cities do not develop.
 - (b) Frequently individual accumulations of wealth, consisting mostly of herds and flocks.
 - e. Men no longer needed to starve through the winter—they could subsist on abundant food supplies in their flocks.
 - f. The hunt ceased to be the chief means of support—became secondary to the care and feeding of flocks and herds.
 - g. Followed in general by the agricultural stage of industrial development.

Suggested Readings:

Ely, Evolution of Industrial Society, Ch. II.

Starr, Some First Steps in Human Progress, Chs. III, IV, IX, XIII.

Dealey, Sociology, 96-109.

Fairbanks, Introduction to Sociology, Ch. VIII.

Ely, Outlines of Economics, Ch. III.

Seligman, Principles of Economics, Ch. V.

SECTION 40. THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

- (1) Another social advance when man learned that he must spare the vegetable sources of his nourishment.

- a. Rough cultivation with the hoe developed first.
- b. The sparing of roots and tubers developed into tillage of the soil with oxen and plough.
- c. Hoe-culture first developed by women.
- d. When men turned from the hunt to hoe-culture, they applied the technical skill gained in the former to the latter.
- e. With rough agriculture, the primitive man passed from flesh diet of nomadism to a preponderant use of vegetative foods.
- f. Roaming life of nomadism supplanted by settled life required by agriculture.

(2) Production of wealth is increased especially by the use of animal power in cultivating the soil.

(3) With cultivation of soil and accompanying vast increase in food supply, population increases rapidly.

- a. Fixed abodes and increased control over food supply develops village communities.

(4) With stationary abodes, holding slaves becomes feasible:

- a. Under nomadism necessary to kill captives taken in war; with agriculture better to enslave captives than to kill them.
- b. Cultivation of soil by slave-labor, at first such an apparent improvement, gradually becomes economically unprofitable.
 - (a) Supplanted first by serfdom, then by free labor.

(5) England was almost wholly agricultural for three centuries following the Norman Conquest.

- a. Population lived in manors—were serfs.

(6) Development of American agriculture is more closely related to that of Great Britain than to that of any other part of the world.

- a. First era, 1607 to 1776, during which the colonists transplanted European methods of agriculture to American soil and re-adapted them to the new conditions.
- b. Second period, 1776 to 1833, marked by the conquest of the great interior valleys and forests, the establish-

ment of the public land policy of the federal government.

- c. Period of transformation from 1833, when nearly all farm work was done by hand, to 1864, when nearly all farm operations were done by machinery driven by horse-power.
- d. Period of westward expansion, 1864 to 1888, stimulated by development of the railroads, the Homestead Laws of 1862 and 1864, etc.
- e. Period of reorganization, 1888 to the present time, marked by,
 - (a) More systematic application of principles of experimental science to agriculture.
 - (b) Transition from extensive to intensive agriculture.

(7) The present farm problem—in maintaining upon our farms a class of people who have succeeded in procuring for themselves the highest possible class status.

- a. Not only in the industrial, but in the social order, as measured by the demands of the highest sociological ideals.

Suggested Readings:

- Carver, Principles of Rural Economics, Ch. II.
- Butterfield, Chapters in Rural Progress, Ch. II.
- Bullock, Selected Readings in Economics, Ch. IV.
- Ely, Outlines of Economics, Ch. XXXI.
- Survey, "Is an Organized Country Life Movement Possible?" Jan. 4, 1913, 449-56.

SECTION 41. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE FACTORY SYSTEM OF INDUSTRY.

- (1) The factory system, an outgrowth of the domestic system and handicraft stage.
 - a. The handicraft stage began (for example, in England) with the development of towns as centers of trade about the 13th century.
 - (a) Extended to the introduction of power machinery about 1775.

- (b) Merchants gilds developed to keep a monopoly of trade for the merchants of the given towns.
- (c) Superseded by craft gilds which specified how each given craft should be carried on.
- (d) Manufacturing cities became the rivals of the feudal lords.
- (e) Gild system superseded by the domestic system in which the functions of merchants and workman were separated.

b. Decay of town authority was superseded by national system of regulation—the Mercantile system.

- (a) Guidance of economic affairs so as to increase the commercial and military power of the nation.

(2) The factory system developed during the so-called Industrial Evolution (in England, 1770-1840).

- a. During the last half of the 18th century, progress of invention was exceptionally rapid.
 - (a) The great invention was the application of steam as a motive force.
 - (b) Immediately hand-driven tools were supplanted by power-driven machinery.
 - (c) And the home as the unit of production gave way to the factory.
 - (d) Use of expensive machinery and steam power made it impossible for men to carry on their work in their own homes.
- b. With factory system arose two great industrial classes, laborers and capitalists, with a great gulf between.
- c. With factory system and large-scale production, came division of labor.
 - (a) Implies mutual dependence—each individual relies upon many others to complete his own one-sided activity.

(3) Industry under the developing factory system felt encumbered by the old-time mercantile laws and restrictions.

- a. Adam Smith advocated free competition.
- b. *Laissez faire* policy succeeded mercantilism.

- (4) Reaction against the *laissez faire* methods of controlling the factory system.
 - a. Labor has had to be protected.
 - (a) A minimum age and schooling for children at work.
 - (b) Fencing in of dangerous machinery; sanitation in factories; shorter hours.
 - (c) Increasing liability of employers in cases of accidents to their employees.
 - b. Quality of goods has had to be safe-guarded.
 - (a) Inspection of manufactured goods by the state to prevent adulteration now an accepted principle.
 - c. Extension of government enterprise,—not only regulation of industry, but increasing field directly managed by the state; also development of government owned and operated manufactures.

Suggested Readings:

- Ely, Outlines of Economics, Chs. IV, V.
- Bullock, Selected Readings in Economics, Ch. V.
- Seligman, Principles of Economics, Ch. VI.
- Bogart, Economic History of the United States, Chs. IV, XI, XIII.
- Toynbee, The Industrial Revolution, Ch. VIII.

SECTION 42. RISE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE LABOR CLASSES.

- (1) Primitive division of labor,—men hunted and fought, women engaged in hoe-culture and did menial work about the habitation.
- (2) “Agricultural stage”—slaves used at first to do hard labor, but later under manorial economy, serfs or half-freed slaves found more profitable.
- (3) In handicraft stage, free labor was found more profitable than serf or slave.
 - a. Motive for work changed from fear to self-interest—far greater returns.

- (4) With free labor, organization of labor proper begins.
 - a. Craft gilds of mediaeval times were among the first organizations of productive forces.
 - b. Labor unions began, as they now exist, not among general laborers but among skilled classes.
 - (a) Aim: to get better wages, shorter hours, improved conditions.
 - c. Early opposition of employers took aspect of discouragement of unions.
 - (a) Labor unions at first declared illegal—as conspiracies against employers.
- (5) Five periods in history of labor unions in United States.
 - a. Germinal period, 1790-1825,—repression and persecution.
 - (a) Declared as conspiracies, yet established on the whole a growing sense of solidarity among wage-earners.
 - b. Revolutionary period, 1825-1850,—when legislative approval was secured, labor made unjust demands of employers.
 - (a) Turned ideals of unions into radical, socialistic principles.
 - c. Period of nationalism, 1850-1865,—a marked improvement in the government and administration of the trade union.
 - (a) Typographical union in 1850 was first trade to be organized nationally.
 - (b) By 1866, more than thirty trades had established national organizations.
 - d. Period of federation, 1865-1893,—marked by the meteoric rise of Knights of Labor, and by the more permanent American Federation of Labor.
 - e. Present period of collective bargaining—representatives of powerful labor organizations meet representatives of powerful employers' associations and buy and sell labor.
- (6) Historical lessons.
 - a. Danger to unions of direct participation in politics.

- b. Fundamental unit of labor organization must be a trade or industrial body.
- c. Ideals must not have undue elevation, nor be super-abundant.
- d. Leaders must be rational and socialized.

Suggested Readings:

- Adams and Sumner, *Labor Problems*, Chs. VII, XIII.
- Bullock, *Selected Readings in Economics*, Ch. XIX.
- Ely, *Outlines of Economics*, Ch. XXIII.
- Fetter, *Source-book in Economics*, Ch. IV.
- Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, Ch. LV.

SECTION 43. LARGE-SCALE PRODUCTION: ITS ADVANTAGES, LIMITATIONS, AND CONTROL.

- (1) Large-scale production means the concentration of employment.
 - a. While new factories are being continually started, there are also strong tendencies toward increase in the size of the unit.
 - b. In the United States, the maximum number of manufacturing establishments in many branches was reached in the Seventies.
- (2) Two kinds of capitalistic combinations of production.
 - a. Consolidation of like units into a larger whole.
 - b. Integration of unlike units—as of mining and transportation companies.
- (3) Combinations of capital have undergone several phases.
 - a. Earliest form was the agreement of independent concerns to fix prices—to increase profits by restricting competition.
 - b. Next step was agreement to divide the field, each enterprise contracting to limit its activity to a particular section.
 - c. Third phase is the pool or attempt to restrict the output rather than the price or field—each member of the combination having an allotted percentage of production.

- d. Then the formation of "trust" companies, whereby constituent companies turn business over to a board of central trustees, receiving trust certificates, abandoning to the "trust" entire operation of business.
 - (a) Reached in 1882 by formation of Standard Oil Trust.
- e. Followed by the "holding corporation"—a new central corporation is formed to buy up a majority interest of stock of individual corporations.
 - (a) Each constituent corporation is operated as a separate unit.
 - (b) But its capacity is virtually controlled by the directory of the parent company.
 - (c) The trust in a new and more effective form.
 - (d) Examples: U. S. Steel Corporation of 1901, American Tobacco Company of 1904.
 - (e) Plan failed when applied to railways in case of the Northern Securities Co.,—because of special prohibitive legislation.
- f. Present tendency is toward the so-called system of "community of interests."
 - (a) Whereby the same directors virtually possess a controlling voice in the management of each constituent company.
 - (b) Can't prevent combinations of the last named type; and alternative is government regulation.

(4) Social effects of large-scale enterprise.

- a. Advantage of combinations is lower cost; but object of combinations is higher profits.
- b. Tend to become impersonal; responsibility hard to locate.
- c. Present a more solid front to the demands of labor unions.
- d. Independent producer undoubtedly assailed by the combination.
- e. Powerful attempts to control tariff and other legislation.

Suggested Readings :

Hobson, *Evolution of Modern Capitalism*, Ch. V.
Seligman, *Principles of Economics*, Chs. VI., XXII., XXXV.
Van Hise, *Concentration and Control*, Chs. I, V.
Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, Chs. IV, LXIII.
Ely, *Outlines of Economics*, Chs. X, XIII, XXVI.

SECTION 44. DANGEROUS TRADES AND INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

(1) The trades which induce disease are obviously dangerous.

(2) Dust and gas play a leading part in inducing trade diseases.

- a. Dust may prove injurious to the worker by (a) irritating the skin, (b) by entering the lungs, and (c) by entering the alimentary canal.
- b. In the coal miner's lungs there can be observed small masses of cells deeply laden with black carbon particles surrounded by a hardened zone of altered lung (Oliver).
- c. The entrance of dust into the lung finally converts it into "a hard and almost solid organ."
- d. This alteration of the lung tissue affords an easy hold for the tuberculosis bacillus.
- e. In England, in non-dusty trades the deaths per 1000 workers due to phthisis, 2.39, but in the dusty trades, 5.42 (Oliver).

(3) Lead poisoning occurs in thirteen trades—most severe, in white lead manufacturing.

- a. The most usual result of lead poisoning is gastritis.
 - (a) Since most of the lead enters the system through the alimentary canal.

(4) Industrial accidents are the sudden physical results that are involved in the lack of adjustment between men and their industrial environment.

- a. Railroad accidents: in 1907, 11,839 persons were killed in railroad accidents in the United States; and 111,000 persons were injured.

- (a) In 1907 one trainman was killed for every 125 employed; and one trainman in every 8 employed was injured.
- b. Coal mine accidents: in 1908 in the United States, 2450 miners were killed and 6772 were injured.
 - (a) This tremendous sacrifice of life in coal mines wholly unjustifiable.
- c. Factory accidents: in New York alone, from 1901 to 1906, 39,244 accidents were reported.
- d. In the United States annually about 35,000 persons are killed by industrial accidents, and about 500,000 are seriously injured.
 - (a) We send to the hospital or graveyard one worker every minute of the year (Reeve).
- e. Social cost: men and women in the prime of their lives, in the height of the productive capacity are partially or wholly destroyed.
- f. The compensation is inadequate in perhaps 80% of the cases.
 - (a) "Bright hopes may be blasted, and happy families dragged to the lowest depths of shame and misery, while bench and bar quibble for years over puerile questions of legal responsibility."

(5) It is because accidents are so cheap, that they are so numerous.

- a. The employer is largely exempt from liability, and he permits the continuance of conditions which create accidents.

Suggested Readings:

*Nearing, *Social Adjustment*, Chs. XI, XII.

Campbell, *Industrial Accidents and Their Compensation*, Ch. I.

Oliver, *Diseases of Occupation*, Ch. I.

Oliver, *Dangerous Trades*, Ch. I.

SECTION 45. UNEMPLOYMENT.

- (1) Unemployment is involuntary idleness during normal work time.

- a. According to N. Y. Department of Labor, about 15% of the organized workers of that state are constantly unemployed.
- b. U. S. Census estimates that about 22% of the workers of the country are unemployed for a part of the year.
- c. Carlyle: "Perhaps the saddest sight that fortune's inequality exhibits—the man who is willing to work, and can't find it."

(2) The principal personal causes of unemployment are sickness and disability of various sorts.

- a. These causes lead to a study of the "unemployables."
- b. The "unemployables"—three classes—those physically or mentally wholly unable to work, those who lack efficiency in their work, those too "lazy" to work.

(3) Industrial causes of unemployment throw efficient workmen into forced idleness, by circumstances entirely unconnected with their personality.

- a. The "disemployed" are out of work, not because they are unable to work, but because there is no work for them to do.
- b. Seasonal trades are common, and they inevitably mean unemployment.
 - (a) Railroad construction work is suspended during the extreme cold months, likewise building trades, etc.
 - (b) Unemployment is less frequent in summer than in winter (except in coal mines, theaters, clothing trades).
 - (c) The average miner can work from year to year, about two-thirds of the time.
- c. Industrial crises and labor troubles increase unemployment.
 - (a) Many thousands of men (strikers) are annually forced out of work because they feel so strongly their class responsibility that they join in an action of which they disapprove.

(4) The unemployed leads an irregular life.

- a. The result is usually some form of dissipation.

- b. The unemployed tends to lose one of his best characteristics as an efficient worker,—methodical regularity.
- c. At the end of the period of unemployment, the average man is far less efficient and capable than at the beginning of his period of unemployment.
- d. Increases need for charity,—in two-thirds of the families who apply for charity in industrially normal times, one or more wage-earners are unemployed at the time.
- e. The irregular life of the father communicates itself to the children.
- f. The lack of food resulting from a lack of income means malnutrition for the whole family.
- g. The individual degenerates, the family suffers, society pays the cost,—in more philanthropy and taxes or by being deprived of the services of its idle workmen.

Suggested Readings:

- *Nearing, *Social Adjustment*, Ch. XIV.
- Devine, *Misery and its Causes*, Ch. III.
- Webb, *Prevention of Destitution*, Chs. V, VI.
- Reports, U. S. Bureau of Labor.

SECTION 46. THE DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIAL IMPORTANCE OF TRANSPORTATION.

- (1) As means of travel and for conveyance of goods, waterways and watercraft have held the largest place in history.
 - a. Sea and river were gifts of nature; land roads, the laborious creation of man.
 - b. Great rivers of Central Europe early became the principal means of communication.
- (2) First aids to land locomotion were primitive forms of foot-gear; first coaches were backs of savage mothers; first landways were footpaths of wild animals.
 - a. Human footpaths along rivers developed, widened as bridle-paths for horse-back riding, later widened further into wagon-roads.

- b. In France great attention was first given to construction of landways (on the basis of old Roman roads); great highroads of France have been admiration of travelers for more than 200 years.
- (3) In United States, "turnpike period" extends from 1790 to 1816.
 - a. From construction of first turnpike to steam navigation upon Ohio river.
- (4) "River and canal period," marked by introduction of steam travel on the Hudson (1807) and on the Ohio and Mississippi (1808-1817); by opening of the Erie Canal in 1825.
 - a. First railroad, Baltimore and Ohio, opened in 1830; from 1830 to 1840 many short lines built.
- (5) In next period, 1840 to 1870, railroads supplanted waterways and process of linear consolidation began.
 - a. In 1853, ten short, independent lines between Albany and Buffalo were united in the New York Central.
 - b. In 1869, first transcontinental line, the Union Pacific, was completed.
- (6) Period from 1870 to 1890 produced three striking developments.
 - a. A period of feverish expansion; railway mileage increased from 52,000 to 160,000 miles.
 - b. Completion of several through routes from Atlantic to Chicago brought a period of destructive competition.
 - c. Double reaction—railways sought to restrain competition by "agreements" and people sought to protect themselves through legislation and creation of Interstate Commerce Commission.
- (7) Since 1890—a period of unprecedented consolidation among railroads; "community of interests" system in control.
 - a. Mileage, 1913, about 245,000 miles; employ about 1,000,000 men; unparalleled loss of life on railroads.
- (8) Transportation includes transmission of ideas, etc.
 - a. Modern postal system introduced in England by Rowland Hill's four reforms in 1840; uniformity of rate, penny postage, prepayment, the use of stamps.

- b. Includes telegraph, 1844; cable across the Atlantic 1866; telephone, 1876; wireless telegraph, 1901.
- (9) Transportation makes our social order possible; present society could not exist without the services of public carriers.
 - a. Business as we know it to-day would be impossible.
 - b. Neither could governments maintain order, enforce laws, and provide in hundreds of ways for the common welfare.

Suggested Readings :

Johnson, Elements of Transportation, Ch. I., ff.
Seligman, Principles of Economics, Ch. XXXIII.
Taussig, Principles of Economics, Chs. LX, LXI.
Ely, Outlines of Economics, Ch. XXVII.
McPherson, Transportation in Europe, Chs. II, III, X.
Cooley, Social Organization, Pt. II.

SECTION 47. MONEY: THE SOCIAL FUNCTION OF EXCHANGE.

- (1) Money—a commodity which mankind voluntarily accepts in exchange for all other commodities and services.
 - a. Earliest exchanges were by barter—each man exchanged goods which had little utility to him for other goods which had more.
 - b. Some commodities were almost invariably in demand and were acceptable to nearly all persons.
 - (a) Hence furs, cattle, wampum, etc., were used as universally desirable commodities.
 - (b) Latin word, *pecunia*, from *pecus*, a herd of cattle or sheep.
 - (c) Baser metals, copper, iron, zinc, and precious metals, gold and silver, have served as acceptable commodities in exchange.
 - c. Predominance of gold and silver over baser metals and other articles as exchange media is due to following reasons:
 - (a) Their beauty has made them universally desired for purposes of ornamentation.

- (b) Difficult to procure and have high exchange value—small amounts of them can be exchanged for large amounts of most other goods.
- (c) Highly divisible; can be converted easily into convenient coins.
- (d) Have been relatively uniform in value; and are so today the world over.
- d. While metallic money is a great step beyond barter, it has disadvantages: bulky, clumsy to handle, easily lost.
 - (a) Hence an advanced form of money—paper money, which is more easily transported, less bulky, more readily transferred from individual to individual.
- (2) Civilized communities make use of another instrument of exchange known as credit.
 - a. Many commercial transactions are now carried on without the use of money at all.
 - (a) But in a primitive community, because of the uncertainty of the future, one cannot buy goods without paying for them directly.
 - b. In modern business, four kinds of credit: (a) book credit, (b) notes, (c) checks, drafts, and bills of exchange, (d) banking operations—discount, deposit, issue.
 - c. Credit is one of the most effective instruments in the hands of modern society.
 - d. Yet it leads to extravagant living, stock watering, "high finance" and allows much speculation.
 - e. But since credit is so essential to modern progress, stringent regulations should be made and enforced to prevent its employment in "high finance" and to insure its integrity.
- (3) Money, a simple and effective instrument of exchange is as necessary to the progress of mankind as are the improvements in the process of production itself.

Suggested Readings:

White, Money and Banking, Chs. I, II.
Burch and Nearing, Elements of Economics, Ch. XXVIII.
Bullock, Introduction to Economics, Chs. VIII, IX, X.
Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. II, Ch. IX.
Bullock, Selected Readings in Economics, Chs. XII, XIV.
Seligman, Principles of Economics, Ch. XXVIII.

SECTION 48. THE SOCIAL MEANING OF INSURANCE.

(1) Insurance, a device to remove the economic consequence of uncertainty.

- a. Uncertainty, a disadvantage which every prudent man desires as far as possible to eliminate—can be overcome in three ways.
 - (a) By avoidance, i. e., by joining to the transaction in question another which counterbalances it—as in ordinary “covering transactions” of the cotton or wheat futures.
 - (b) By preventing or greatly reducing degree of risk—can make a house absolutely fire-proof.
 - (c) By facing and assuming the risk but reducing it by combining one's own risk with that of others in a group.

(2) Beginnings of insurance are to be found in three entirely distinct sources.

- a. In primitive mutual help—in earliest Teutonic Frith-gilds there was mutual responsibility for loss by fire, theft.
- b. In the classic bottomry loans—first business insurance in connection with only kind of enterprise where capital was employed then on large scale, i. e., over-sea trading.
 - (a) Loan on a vessel to be repaid with interest providing ships were not lost or did not fall into hands of pirates.
- c. In Mediaeval system of rent charges.

(3) Most important forms of modern insurance are five:

- a. Marine insurance—centers in England.
 - (a) Began with Lloyd's Coffee House as a center—by 1750 virtually all marine insurance was done at "Lloyd's."
- b. Fire insurance—received its impetus from "Great Fire," London, 1666.
- c. Life insurance—because of vicissitudes and magnitude of modern business life in the United States, American life insurance companies have far transcended all others in importance.
 - (a) Includes general health and general accident insurance.
- d. Employers' Liability Insurance—intended to distribute the liability of employers for industrial accidents.
- e. Industrial insurance—because of individualism and "personal liberty," the United States is many years behind leading European nations.

(4) Leading forms of industrial insurance are: accident, sickness, old age.

- a. Accident insurance—ordinarily risks of injury in employment are accepted by workmen with virtually no attention.
 - (a) Hence the great German system of compelling employers to form insurance companies for benefit of workmen.
- b. Insurance against sickness—fairly adequate data now available as to frequency of illness in modern communities.
 - (a) Fraternal societies of England are perhaps leaders in this work but they reach a class comparatively prosperous.
 - (b) Hence the German compulsory system for sick insurance.
- c. Old age insurance—Germany, e. g., provides old age pensions for her workingmen by public authority.

(5) United States is now facing the problem of getting the whole movement for workingmen's insurance under successful headway.

Suggested Readings:

Gephart, *Principles of Insurance*, Chs. I, XI, XII.
Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, Ch. LVIII.
Seligman, *Principles of Economics*, XXXIV.
Webb, S. and B., *Prevention of Destitution*, Ch. VII.

SECTION 49. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF RECENT SOCIALISTIC MOVEMENTS.

(1) Socialistic ideas explained.

- a. Socialism contemplates expansion of business functions of government until the more important forms of business are absorbed.
- b. Private property in profit-producing capital and rent-producing land is to be abolished.
- c. Not war upon capital, but upon private capitalist.
- d. Seeks establishment of industrial democracy through instrumentality of the State.

(2) In one sense there is no one general type of socialism, but many varieties.

- a. Modern socialism may be dated from William Godwin's "Inquiry concerning Political Justice" in 1793.
- b. Utopian socialists, e. g., Robt. Owen's colony at New Harmony, Indiana.
- c. Marxian socialists—call themselves scientific as distinguished from idealistic writers.
 - (a) Hold labor theory of value, economic interpretation of history, doctrine of class struggle whereby the capitalist class will be overthrown.
- d. Fabian socialists—disproved both Utopian settlements and philosophy of Marx.
 - (a) Aim to spread socialistic ideas by dissemination of knowledge, rather than by organized political movement.
 - (b) Membership largely from educated middle class—the Webbs.
- e. Christian Socialists—advocate voluntary co-operation and elevation of workmen, on ground that this is required by teachings of the Christian religion.

- f. State socialism—used in Germany to mean those who favor extension of economic functions of government without any great change in existing class relations.
- (3) Strength of socialism.
 - a. Found in its plea for a scientific organization of the productive forces of society.
 - b. In its plea for a just distribution of annual social income.
- (4) Weakness of socialism.
 - a. Underestimates the efficiency of present system's premium on individual energy and thrift.
 - b. Compulsory co-operation incompatible with present human nature.
 - c. Overlooks importance of the need of checking public enterprise by private.
 - d. Neglects the fact that a right attitude toward government is more important than any given form of government.
- (5) Services of socialism.
 - a. Persistently calls attention to needed social reforms.
 - b. Forces the more fortunate classes to reflect on the condition of the less fortunate.
 - c. Assists in forming habits of looking at all questions from the standpoint of public welfare and not merely of private gain.
 - d. Secures checks on anti-social operations of soulless big business.

Suggested Readings:

- Cross, Essentials of Socialism, Ch. I, ff.
- Hillquit, History of Socialism, Ch. I, ff.
- Spargo, Applied Socialism, Ch. I, ff.
- Ellis, The Task of Social Hygiene, Ch. XII.
- Taussig, Principles of Economics, Chs. LXIV, LXV.
- Ely, Outlines of Economics, Ch. XXX.

SECTION 50. THE DEVELOPMENT OF ECONOMIC THOUGHT.

- (1) Early economic ideas.

- a. Plato's acceptance and Aristotle's defense of slave labor.
- b. Economic ideas of Romans borrowed from the Greeks.
- c. Christianity emphasized the honorableness of toil and equality of men before God.
- d. Prohibition of usury (interest) by the Mediaeval Church.

(2) Economic thought in modern times.

- a. Mercantilism—synonymous with governmental interference.
- b. Supplanted by the physiocratic doctrine and the theory of *laissez-faire* or non-interference with private enterprise by the government.
- c. Adam Smith's emphasis on doctrines of free trade, non-interference, natural laws—all stated guardedly.
- d. German school's emphasis on relativity of economic policies.
- e. Austrian writers' contribution of marginal utility theory of value.
- f. Socialism's thorough protest against *laissez faire* and private ownership of private property.
- g. Sociology's insistence upon a broad social point of view as against the narrow view of the classical economists.

(3) Economic considerations now being stated in sociological terms.

- a. Wealth and property are subordinate in importance to persons.
- b. Wealth should depend on activity.
- c. Public service should go along with great wealth.
- d. Change from individual to collective methods of industry and the urgent need of a corresponding change from individual to collective types of morality.
- e. To meet impersonal agencies, society must require greater publicity and express its moral standards more adequately in law.
- f. Every normal member of society should share in its wealth and in values made possible by it.

(4) Two great unsettled economic problems.
 a. Individualism versus public agency and control.
 b. Methods of securing a just distribution of wealth.

Suggested Readings:

Ely, Outlines of Economics, Ch. XXXVI.
Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Ch. XXXIII.
Seligman, Principles of Economics, Ch. VIII.
Dealey, Sociology, Ch. XII.
Fisher, Elementary Principles of Economics, Chs. XXV, XXVI.
Fetter, Source Book in Economics, Ch. VI.

Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter VI.

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Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm.: 1905.
Bogart, E. L., Economic History of the United States, Longmans: 1912.
Bullock, C. J., Selected Readings in Economics, Ginn: 1907.
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Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Holt: 1908.
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Hobson, J. A., Evolution of Modern Capitalism, Scribner's: 1904.
Johnson, E. R., Elements of Transportation, Appleton: 1909.
McPherson, L. G., Transportation in Europe, Holt: 1910.

Seligman, E. R. A., *Principles of Economics*, Longmans: 1907.

Spargo, J., *Applied Socialism*, Huebsch: 1912.

Starr, F., *Some First Steps in Human Progress*, Chaut.: 1901.

Taussig, F. W., *Principles of Economics*, Macm.: 1911.

Toynbee, A., *The Industrial Revolution*, Humboldt: 1884.

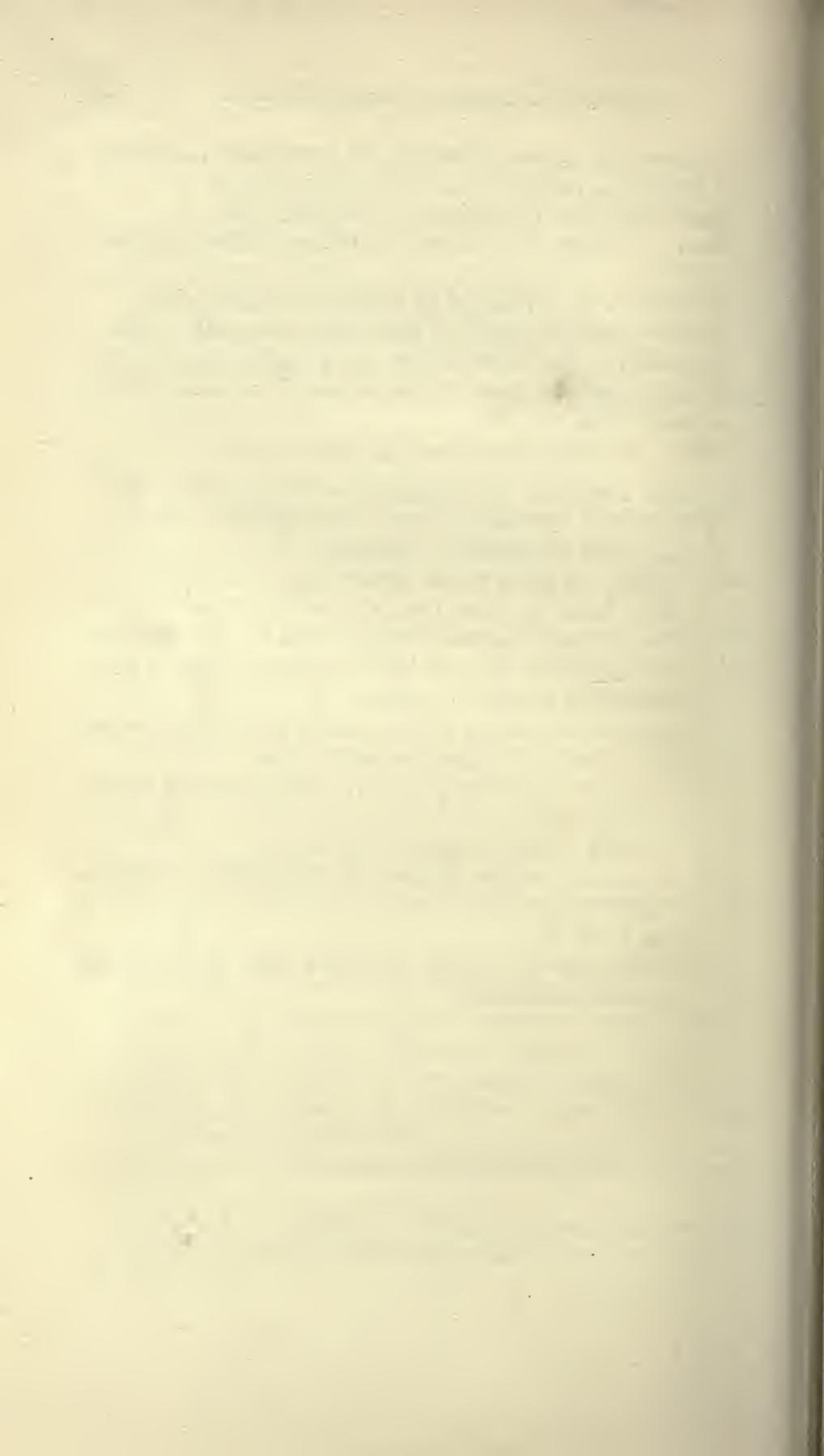
Van Hise, C. R., *Concentration and Control*, Macm.: 1912.

Webb, Sidney and Beatrice, *Prevention of Destitution*, Longmans: 1911.

White, H., *Money and Banking*, Ginn: 1910.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter VI.

1. Industrial Accidents in the United States.
2. Industrial Insurance in Germany.
3. History of Child Labor in the United States.
4. Child Labor in Your Own City.
5. The Rise and Decline of Slavery as a Social Institution.
6. A Comparative Study of Mercantilism and *Laissez Faire* in Relation to Social Progress.
7. Analysis of Leading Occupations in your city according to the Social Prestige attached to them.
8. Description and Value of Five most Important Inventions.
9. Life and Work of Samuel Gompers.
10. Argument for (or against) a Compulsory Minimum Wage.
11. The I. W. W.
12. Comparison of Knights of Labor with the American Federation of Labor.



CHAPTER VII.

POLITICAL AND LEGAL FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 51. THE ORIGIN OF THE STATE.

- (1) The need of protection against one's fellow-beings.
 - a. An animal must have some means of defense—either strength to fight or speed to run away.
 - b. Man lives under conditions where neither his speed nor his strength of arm can protect him from his foes.
 - (a) He must rely on some higher means of defense or perish.
- (2) Man has found protection from his fellows by uniting with his fellows.
 - a. For man protection means defensive strength.
 - b. Many savage tribes unite only in the presence of a common danger.
 - c. Fear is always a potent force in developing functional bonds of union.
 - d. Need of defensive strength leads to union, to the beginnings of a common life that may become political.
- (3) The early state meets this vital need.
 - a. The crude political body formed as a protection for life is a most important social unit and is the germ of the modern state.
 - b. Under the protection of its growing power, we find the beginnings of true economic life and rapid social advance.
 - c. Here are found the beginnings of private property—men agree to respect certain possessions of their neighbors.
 - d. In this group the individual finds protection.

- (a) From the "outside"—hence he has a little world where ordinarily he can live at peace—such peace is the first condition of progress.
- (b) From the "within"—leads to recognition of such individual rights and development of such restraining laws as best conduce to the unity and strength of the whole body.

(4) Need of protection in developed civilization.

- a. Here the function of protection against the outside world is vastly increased.
 - (a) Debt of civilization to the strength of the state takes form in the sentiment of patriotism—the strength of this sentiment we know only when some danger impends.
- b. At the same time, the state continues to protect a man from his neighbors.
 - (a) It is this need of protection which keeps in motion the whole apparatus of the law—legislative, judicial, and administrative.
 - (b) More to be protected today—in primitive society, it is a day's work only that may be stolen; today it is the accumulations of generations that are to be protected by law.

(5) The whole range of political activity goes back for its fundamental stimulus to the simple need of protection.

Suggested Readings:

- Beard, American Government and Politics, Ch. I.
- Leacock, Elements of Political Science, Chs. II, III.
- Garner, Introduction to Political Science, Ch. IV.
- Dealey, Sociology, 123-37.

SECTION 52. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE.

(1) The earliest expression of political life.

- a. A temporary union of men having some interests in common—for purposes of defense.
- b. A sort of temporary oligarchy based on respect for those whose personal prowess enabled the group to meet attack successfully.

- c. Had fundamental elements of modern state.
 - (a) Authority or sovereignty of the leader.
 - (b) A notion of law—in the commands of the chief and in the customs of war and hunting.
 - (c) A common unity since all members of the group were combined for a general purpose.
- (2) The tribal state—developed on the basis of blood relationship.
 - a. Some type of family life formed the basis of the tribal state.
 - b. This unit, held together by ties of blood, by a common authority, by a common religion, was the stable element out of which states were constructed.
 - c. Common descent of members from a fictitious ancestor was postulated; king was invested with absolute authority of a father.
 - d. Religion, especially in the form of ancestor-worship performed important service in developing the habit of obedience.
 - (a) By enforcing with supernatural sanctions all the customs of the past.
- (3) The city-state of the Greeks and Romans, an outgrowth of the tribal state.
 - a. Ties of blood are still strong and a state religion is still a bond of political union.
 - b. Gradually assumed more elaborate administration of justice through protection of weaker members.
 - c. Had greater regularity and permanence than tribal state.
- (4) The feudal state—in which personal allegiance takes precedence over the other factors which bind society together.
 - a. No longer a large family, but rather an army; government is a military institution.
 - b. Its very framework consists of an elaborate system of rights and duties.
 - c. Its form is peculiar; in theory, king owns the whole state and parcels it out to his nobles who in turn distribute it among their subordinates.

- d. Men do not live for the state, but are called on to live for the king in whom the state is concentrated
- (5) The absolute monarchy—an overgrown feudal state.
 - a. For many centuries, monarchs continued to treat the state as their private property.
 - b. Concessions and limitations of their authority always secured with difficulty and at times not without bloodshed.
- (6) The constitutional monarchy and the democracy.
 - a. Ruler is the minister of the people, not a superior clothed with divine rights.
 - b. Parliament or congress is forced to register the will of the people, or the people change its character until it becomes representative.
 - c. By means of representatives chosen by the people, the government is brought into closest relations with the people.
 - d. The sovereignty of the people is the real governing power.

Suggested Readings:

Ashley, American Federal State, Ch. I.

Dealey, Development of the State, Ch. II.

Dealey, Sociology, 123-37.

Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. XXI.

Beard, American Government and Politics, Chs. IV-VII.

SECTION 53. THE SOCIAL FUNCTION OF THE MODERN STATE.

- (1) A state is a group exercising authority over its members and having final authority within a given territory; its general forms of activity may be classified as three-fold:
 - a. Activity with reference to other states, guaranteeing protection from external attack or interference.
 - b. Activity with reference to its citizens, guaranteeing them security and liberty.
 - c. Activity in modifying other factors in group progress.
- (2) Diplomatic and military activity—help to preserve a distinct national life.

- a. First necessity of a state is the power to assert a place for itself among its neighbors.

(3) The state defends the citizen in his needs and punishes crime.

- a. Enforces contracts when properly made; affords damages for accidents.
- b. Provides for formation of corporate bodies for business purposes.
- c. May even lend its stamp as a guarantee of the good quality of certain commodities—thus protecting individuals against fraud.
- d. Punishment of crime clearly belongs to the state for it requires use of an authority which reaches to all parts of society.

- (a) Hence the state now provides machinery for determining justice and punishing the convicted.
- (b) Also establishes an elaborate police system to secure the criminal; and in the person of its own attorneys, conducts the case against him.

(4) The state in relation to other modes of social activity.

- a. If present tendency toward socialistic measures should continue, direct care for welfare of each citizen would come to be most important sphere of state activity.

b. State never has been inventor of economic forms, but has preserved and given definiteness to many of them, e. g.,

- (a) Took up the coinage of money and assumed charge of banking institutions and of commerce.

- (b) Protects inventors by giving them patents.

- (c) Undertakes transmission of mail-matter and keeps the roadways, bridges, in order.

- (d) Has become employer of labor in numerous forms of industry.

- (e) Limits of direct state activity in economic sphere—where final authority and universal

rules are more advantageous than freedom of individual initiative, state should assume control.

- c. The state and moral life—state needs citizens of strong moral character, but moral character is not to be created by force.
 - (a) State removes some temptations to vice—by preventing the circulation of impure literature, limiting sale of intoxicants, etc.
- d. The state and the church,—not one any longer, but the relations between the two not settled.
 - (a) Intervention of state in religion tends to make religion perfunctory.
 - (b) But if religious beliefs are true, then religious side of life cannot be entirely removed from the proper sphere of government.

Suggested Readings:

Wilson, *The State*, 612-28.

Garner, *Introduction to Political Science*, 311-29.

Beard, *American Government and Politics*, Ch. XXXII.

Fairbanks, *Introduction to Sociology*, Ch. X.

Ashley, *American Federal State*, Ch. XIX.

Dealey, *Development of the State*, Ch. V.

SECTION 54. THE COST OF MAINTAINING THE STATE: TAXATION.

- (1) Governmental budgets amount to a tenth part of all the wealth produced.
 - a. What is the proper proportion between public expenditures and total income of society?
 - (a) Total taxation of real property in United States, frequently runs as high as 20% of the net profits.
 - b. Governmental expenditures are rapidly increasing.
 - (a) Due first to fact of increasing public co-operation.
 - (b) Second, unhappily, to militarism.

c. The national government is obliged to spend large sums of money for purposes of protection and maintenance; the state and local governments devote their incomes largely to the advancement of education, social improvements, etc.

(a) Increased taxation may therefore mean greater social welfare.

(2) A government needs two classes of revenues, temporary and permanent.

a. Extraordinary expenditures such as those due to war, floods, and public investments such as railways, city gas works, must be met by loans.

(a) Function of loans—distribution of unavoidable losses so that industry is as little disturbed as possible; relieving present generation from paying for benefits to be partly enjoyed by future generations.

b. Ordinary expenditures such as occur with regularity must be met by taxation.

(3) According to what principle should taxes be apportioned throughout the community?

a. Not according to special benefits received.

(a) For those receiving most benefits, the poor and needy, would be taxed most heavily.

b. Taxes should be laid in proportion to ability to pay.

(a) Those enjoying the comforts of life, the rich and well-to-do, would contribute largely to the support of government.

(4) The burden of taxation may be shifted from one person to another.

a. In case of tariff duties, importer shifts them to the consumer.

(a) If the consumer decides to buy the domestic article, he finds of course that the price is correspondingly increased.

(b) Therefore, whether he buys the domestic or imported article, the burden of this tax falls on the consumer.

- b. The great burden imposed on the poor by means of tariff duties and excises should be offset by forms of direct taxation of the wealthier classes.
 - (a) Inheritance tax, progressive to 15%, is developing rapidly as a satisfactory tax and as method of regulating swollen fortunes.
 - (b) An income tax seems a relatively simple method of bringing about a more just apportionment.
- c. The general property tax, intended for both real estate and personal property, does not effectively reach personal property.
 - (a) Land and houses cannot be hidden but personal property may be readily concealed.
 - (b) Tax on personal property leads to deception and has gone far toward making perjury respectable among the people.

Suggested Readings:

Seligman, *The Income Tax*, Ch. I, ff.

Ely, *Outlines of Economics*, Chs. XXXII to XXXV.

Bullock, *Introduction to Economics*, Ch. XVIII.

Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, LXVI, LXVII.

SECTION 55. LEGISLATION AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT.

- (1) In a small community, knowledge of a maladjustment may lead at once to its elimination; in a large community maladjustment can be removed only by concentrating public opinion in the form of legislation.
- (2) "Where population is densest, wealth greatest, and the machinery of production and exchange most highly developed, we find the deepest poverty, the sharpest struggle for existence, and the most enforced idleness."
(George.)*
 - a. Hence the need for legislation.
- (3) The limitations of legislative remedies.
 - a. Must be preceded by the development of a widespread and deep feeling of social responsibility through the education of the public conscience.

- b. Some maladjustments, such as the dependence of women and the decadence of the home can not be solved by legislation.
 - (a) But only through a strongly developed public opinion and an intelligent self-interest.
- c. Legislation is necessarily external and coercive.
 - (a) It fails oftentimes to change the habits of individuals, and very generally fails to change their opinions.

(4) Legislation should be based on expert investigation and analysis.

- a. Legislatures are each year appointing commissions to investigate housing, sanitation, etc.
 - (a) With the provision that the commission secure the services of a social expert.

(5) The necessity for legislative uniformity.

- a. The manufacturers in the states having a high standard constantly threaten to leave and go to the state with the lower standard.
 - (a) This threat is a powerful weapon in a legislative committee.
- b. In the Southern States, each fears that an effective child labor law will drive the cotton manufacturing business into other states having less stringent legislation.
 - (a) The manufacturer asserts that a high age standard, by raising his expense of production, will make it impossible for him to compete in the open market.
- c. Massachusetts passes a stringent but needed vagrant law, and immediately, the "tramps" in that state depart for adjoining states where laws are less strict.
- d. As a result of different divorce laws in the different states, certain acts are "moral" in one state and grossly immoral in the adjoining state.

(6) A program,—investigation, education, legislation—which will universalize opportunity, socialize achievement, and guarantee adjustment.

Suggested Readings:

- *Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. XVI.
- Beard, American Government and Politics, Ch. XXXII.
- Addams, Democracy and Social Ethics, Ch. VII.
- Kelley, Some Ethical Gains Through Legislation, Chs. I, II.

SECTION 56. THE SOCIOLOGICAL FOUNDATION OF LAW.

- (1) Law is the organized body of rules enforced by the state.
 - a. Ideas of justice among primitive men found in an elaborate body of custom to which absolute validity is assigned.
 - (a) Only principle of growth lies in power of king to decide new cases provided he follows established rules of procedure.
 - b. With higher stages of civilization, need of a more extended law was constantly felt.
 - (a) This need was largely met by the courts; adjudication of particular cases continued to be the source of large additions to "law."
 - c. Today, almost all law has its source in legislative bodies, founded for purpose of making laws.
 - (a) But the real foundation of law is in the will of the people and public opinion.
- (2) Foundations of the science of law must be laid especially in a knowledge of the principles of the organization, development, and functioning of human society.
 - a. Legal texts and codes always presuppose some theory of society.
 - (a) Earliest Roman law presupposed the religious view of social organization that was inherent in ancestor-worship.
 - (b) Later Roman law rested on assumption that the social order was a matter of "contract."
 - (c) Through influence of church during Middle Ages, conception of law as a Divine command dominated.

(d) Sociology reveals the foundation of law, i. e., its origin, nature, and function in human society.

(3) Law is one of the chief means of social control of individual conduct.

- a. Social restraint becomes increasingly necessary to carry on an increasingly complex collective life.
- b. Coercive character of law springs from need of prescribing individual conduct in ways of social advantage.
- c. Law aims to maintain the minimum of conduct necessary for the safety of society.
- d. Civil and criminal law are two great props which sustain social order in any nation.
- e. Hence weakness of criminal law in United States and general disrespect for law are grave signs of social disintegration.

(4) Since it is a lawyer's function to help preserve the social order, legal profession is as fundamentally a social service profession as teaching or the ministry.

- a. If social view of law is right, then commercialized conception of the profession, of having for sale primarily personal service to individuals and corporations who can pay for it is false.
- b. Legal profession must become social servants primarily rather than personal servants of individuals and corporations if the nation is to endure.

Suggested Readings:

*Ellwood, "The Sociological Foundations of Law," Green Bag, Oct. 1910, p. 576-81.

Groat, Attitude of American Courts in Labor Cases, Ch. XXI.

Parsons, Legal Doctrine and Social Progress, Chs. I, XII.

Coleman, Social Ethics, 224-45.

Ross, Social Control, 106-25.

SECTION 57. AMERICAN LAWLESSNESS: A SOCIOLOGICAL INQUIRY.

- (1) Laws are not enforced in the United States as in England, for example, because "like-mindedness" is largely absent.
 - a. In our heterogeneous population, is a Babel of tongues, beliefs, traditions, standards, intellectual and emotional characteristics.
- (2) A second cause of lawlessness is found in connection with "state's rights."
 - a. What does "law" mean to men and women who marry in one state, obtain a divorce in another, and form new alliance in a third?
 - b. What one state will not do for corporations, another will.
- (3) How can there be respect for law as law when there is so little respect for so many men who are sent to the legislatures to create laws?
 - a. Bad and crude statutes, omissions, failures are almost always found in the average legislature's record.
 - b. Many lawmakers are condemned as tools of selfish bosses, and representatives of privilege.
- (4) Slowness with which criminal trials are expedited.
 - a. Took thirteen weeks and summoning of 10,000 veniremen at cost of over \$40,000 to secure a jury in Shea case.
 - (a) In England, scarcely more than an hour is ever taken to secure a jury.
 - b. In Iroquois case, it took three years and four months to bring accused to trial—even then he was freed on a technicality.
 - c. Long lapse of time between the commission of an offense and the trial renders conviction difficult through death of witnesses, etc.
- (5) Too great importance given to technicalities.
 - a. Lawyers who have doubtful cases are known to try to get error into the record, to secure a new trial if client is convicted.
- (6) Too much latitude of appeal.

- a. "The rendering of the verdict is only the beginning of a trial in serious criminal cases."
- (7) Changing attitude of the courts.
 - a. Less blind adherence to precedents which are possibly many years antiquated.
 - b. Increasing consideration of public welfare in interpretation of law and in expedition of legal procedure.

Suggested Readings:

- Yarros, "American Lawlessness: A Sociological Inquiry," Amer. Jour. of Sociology, July, 1912, 77-91.
- Garner, "Criminal Procedure in the United States," Amer. Rev., Jan. 1910, 49-63.
- Bryce, American Commonwealth, Ch. XCVII.
- Eliot, "Lawlessness," Putnam's, Apr. 1909, 82-92.
- Wilson, "Lawyer and the Community," No. Amer. Rev., 192: 604-22.

SECTION 58. INTERNATIONAL LAW AS REGULATING THE CONDUCT OF STATES.

- (1) International law—the rules which determine the conduct of the general body of civilized states in their mutual dealings.
 - a. A science—its chief business is to find out by observation the rules actually followed in their mutual intercourse.
 - b. Coexistence of states renders it necessary for them to pay some sort of attention to one another.
 - (a) The more civilized the states, the more intimate the intercourse, which includes commerce, scientific discovery, etc.
 - c. Generally observed by states, though here and there some of its commands are disregarded.
 - (a) Owing to absence of coercive force to compel nations to obedience, it is more liable to be violated than is the law of the land.
 - d. Applies to civilized states only, though it is not confined to Christian states.

- e. Regulates the conduct of states in their mutual dealings, hostile as well as pacific.
- (2) The first period in the world's history of international law extends from the earliest times to establishment of the universal dominion of Rome.
 - a. Its distinguishing mark—states as such possessed no rights and were subject to no obligations.
 - b. Kinship the only basis—nations owed duties to one another if they were of the same race but not otherwise.
- (3) The second period ends with the Reformation.
 - a. The relations of the states must be regulated by a common superior; for a long time the Roman emperor was such a superior.
 - (a) The Holy Roman Empire and the papacy claimed universal authority during the Middle Ages.
- (4) The third period—from the Reformation to the present.
 - a. The ruling principle is that states are units in a great society, the members of which have mutual rights and obligations.
 - b. Grotius the great agent in effecting this change in ideas.
 - c. The rudiments of an international legislature in the Hague conventions.
- (5) The international problem—development of national states a tremendous step forward, but it cannot be the final step.
 - a. As clans were intensely jealous, so States are now arrayed against states with distrust and hatred.
 - b. A great social waste to have to preserve peace by constantly enlarging armies and navies.

Suggested Readings:

Lawrence, *Principles of International Law*, Chs. I, II.

Hall, *International Law*, 1-16.

Ashley, *American Federal State*, Ch. XXVIII.

Willoughby, *Rights and Duties of American Citizenship*, Ch. IV.

Parsons, *Legal Doctrine and Social Progress*, Ch. XI.

SECTION 59. POLITICAL PROBLEMS OF THE DAY.

(1) Distrust of government.

- a. Government even in most democratic countries is still thought of as an external "ruler" operating from above.
 - (a) Rather than an organ by which people associated in pursuit of common ends can most effectively co-operate for realization of their own aims.
- b. Problem: to make governmental machinery such a prompt and flexible organ as will do away with distrust of government.

(2) Indifference to public concerns.

- a. Multiplication of private interests invites neglect of those fundamental general concerns of government.
- b. Politics tends to become a trade of a class of experts in the manipulation of their fellows.
- c. "Politics" gets bad name and results in aloofness from public matters of those best fitted to participate.

(3) Corruption—indifference of the many leaves management of political affairs in hands of a few, who can work in more or less irresponsible secrecy.

- a. That a "public office is a public trust" is a principle most difficult to realize.
- b. A special field in which corruption may flourish—public utility companies.
 - (a) It becomes a very special object for great corporations to control agencies of legislation and administration.

(4) Reforms in party machinery—"machines" of political parties with their hierachal gradation of bosses.

- a. Bosses—men in touch with great business interests at one extreme and with those who pander to the vices of the community at the other.

(5) Reforms in governmental machinery.

- a. Our constitutions defective, because they cannot foresee direction of industrial development, increased complexity of social life.

(6) Constructive social legislation—not a question of magnifying powers of the State against individuals, but one of making individual liberty a more extensive and equitable matter.

Suggested Readings:

Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, 474-82.

Ely, Outlines of Economics, Ch. XXVI.

Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. IV., Chs. II, VI.

Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. XXIII.

Cooley, Social Organization, Ch. XXXV.

Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter VII.

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Beard, C. A., American Government and Politics, Macm: 1912.

Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm: 1905.

Bryce, J., American Commonwealth, Macm: 1907.

Bullock, C. J., Introduction to Economics, Silver, Burdett: 1908.

Burch and Nearing, Elements of Economics, Macm: 1912.

Coleman, J. M., Social Ethics, Baker and Taylor: 1903.

Cooley, C. H., Social Organization, Scribner's: 1909.

Dealey, J. Q., Sociology, Silver, Burdett: 1909.

Dealey, J. Q., Development of the State, Silver, Burdett: 1909.

Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Holt: 1908.

Ely, R. T., Outlines of Economics, Macm: 1908.

Fairbanks, A., Introduction to Sociology, Scribner's: 1910.

Garner, J. W., Introduction to Political Science, Amer. Book: 1910.

Giddings, F. H., Elements of Sociology, Macm: 1909.

Groat, G., Attitude of American Courts in Labor Cases, Columbia Univ: 1911.

Hall, W. E., International Law, Oxford Univ. Pr. 1904.

Lawrence, T. J., Principles of International Law, Heath: 1910.

Leacock, S., Elements of Political Science, Houghton, Mifflin: 1906.

Parsons, F., Legal Doctrines and Social Progress, Huebsch: 1911.

Ross, E. A., Social Control, Macm: 1910.

Seligman, E. R. A., The Income Tax, Macm: 1911.

Taussig, F. W., Principles of Economics, Macm: 1911.

Willoughby, W. W., Rights and Duties of American Citizenship, Amer. Book: 1898.

Wilson, W., The State, Heath: 1899.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter VII.

1. The Present Political Situation in your City.
2. Sociological Study of More's *Utopia*.
3. A study of Plato's *Republic*.
4. An analysis of Aristotle's *Politics*.
5. A study of the Organization of the Iroquois Confederacy.
6. A Comparison of the Governments of Germany and the United States from a Social Standpoint.
7. History and Present Status of Woman Suffrage in the United States.
8. The College Man in Politics.
9. Changing Attitude of the Courts toward Social Legislation.
10. Social Significance of Recent Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States.
11. The Relations of the "Bosses" in Politics to the Public Service Corporations.
12. Recent Social Legislation.

CHAPTER VIII.

ETHICAL AND RELIGIOUS FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 60. THE BEGINNINGS OF MORALITY.

- (1) A time in the development of the race when men were non-moral.
 - a. Before the moral consciousness began to act, race morality was based on custom.
- (2) We may roughly distinguish three levels of conduct, each of which must be traversed by the individual before he can attain the higher stage.
 - a. Conduct arising from instincts and instinctive needs.
 - b. Conduct regulated by the standards of society.
 - c. Conduct which is both social and rational.
- (3) Motives in these levels show a similar scale.
 - a. Motives are external to end gained, e. g., man seeks food, position, glory, and is forced to practice industry, sobriety.
 - b. Motive is to seek some good which is "social;" acts for the group mainly because he is of the group.
 - c. In full morality, man values acts because he has reasoned about them and concludes that they are right and social.
- (4) To assist in effecting this moral life, nature uses several socializing agencies.
 - a. Primitive man in working, in conquering enemies, is forming certain elements of character.
 - (a) Which if not moral in themselves are yet indispensable requisites for full morality.
- (5) Work as a character-building agency.
 - a. With beginning of agriculture, men who succeed must develop continuity of purpose and foresight.

- b. Must organize those habits which are the basis of character, instead of yielding entirely to the impulse for pleasure.
- c. In primitive industry there was much concerted work, in hunting, in herding.
 - (a) This co-operation means that each is interested in success of all; means development of crude sympathy.
- (6) War as contributing to moral development.
 - a. War served to bring out courage, efficiency, a sense of power, a consciousness of achievement.
 - (a) All of these may be used for immoral ends, but are highly important in an effective moral personality.
- (7) The arts and crafts—aside from their influence as work, they have a distinctly elevating and refining effect.
 - a. They give some visible or audible embodiment for order or form.
 - b. In conforming to this order, the savage or child is in training for the more conscious control where order and law may oppose the impulses.
- (8) Family life is a primitive idealizing agency; it exerts a strong influence for sympathy and altruism in the child.
 - a. Upon the parents themselves, it exerts transforming power, makes life serious, overcomes selfishness, projects thought and hope on into the future.

Suggested Readings :

- Dealey, Sociology, 146-65.
- Ross, Social Control, Ch. XXV.
- Sumner, Folkways, Ch. I.
- Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Ch. III.

SECTION 61. CONDUCT REGULATED BY CUSTOM.

- (1) A large part of human conduct, in savage and in civilized life, is based on socially approved ways of acting, common to a group, handed down from generation to generation.
 - a. Such approved ways of going and acting are customs or mores; they are habits, and moreover they imply

the judgment of the group that they are to be followed.

- b. Origin of the mores—some ways of acting succeeded, others fail—the former become the mores.
- c. Authority behind the mores : while the old men, medicine men, priests may be the guardians of the mores, the authority back of them is the group in the full sense.
 - (a) Not simply the group composed of the living and visible members, but the larger group which includes the dead and the kindred ancestral gods.

(2) Means of enforcing the customs or mores.

- a. Public approval, likely to be emphasized by some form of art, e. g., songs that greet the returning victor.
 - (a) Ridicule or contempt is a sufficient penalty to enforce compliance.
- b. Taboo—is itself a custom invested with peculiar and awful sanction.
 - (a) It prohibits any contact with certain persons or objects under penalty of danger from unseen beings.
 - (b) In order to have a supply of cocoanuts, the chiefs may place a taboo upon the young cocoanuts to save them till ripe.
- c. Ritual—as taboo is great negative guardian of customs, ritual is the great positive agent.
 - (a) It operates by forming habits.
 - (b) The charm of orderly movement, the impressiveness of ordered masses in processions, the awe of mystery, all contribute to stamp in the meaning and value.
- c. Ritual secures the actual doing ; at the same time stamps in the meaning.
- d. When neither group opinion, nor taboo, nor ritual secures conformity, there is always in the background physical force.

(3) Value and defects of customary morality.

- a. Only partly rational; many customs are irrational, some are injurious.
- b. In it all, the habitual is a large if not the largest factor.
- c. Involves misplaced energy; what is merely trivial is made as important as what has real value.
- d. The motive involved is chiefly a quasi-social fear, no longer a purely instinctive reaction.
- e. Its weakness is that the element of habit is so large, that of freedom so small.
- f. It protects the average man; it holds back the man who might forge ahead; it is an anchor, and a drag.

Suggested Readings:

Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Ch. IV.

Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. IV, Ch. III.

Sumner, Folkways, Ch. XV.

Ross, Social Control, Ch. XXIV.

SECTION 62. A COMPARISON OF CUSTOM AND REFLECTIVE MORALITY.

- (1) With every increase of opportunity for good, there is a corresponding opportunity for evil.
 - a. Some will react to the larger situation so as to rise to a higher moral level, both in personal integrity and in personal usefulness.
 - b. Others will find temptations too strong for their control and become vicious or will seize the chance to exploit others.
 - c. For a Jane Addams, there are women who will trade in the wretchedness of their kind.
 - d. The evolution of morality may be also an evolution of weakness, wretchedness, evil, and crime.
- (2) Persistence of group morality.
 - a. Each profession and institution today has a code of which the individual has to take account.
 - b. Group and custom morality is still the morality of many of us most of the time and of all of us some of the time.

- c. In the family group, school-group, we must to a certain extent accept standards that are given.
 - (a) We have to play according to the rules of the game.
- (3) Reflective morality is the mark of a progressive society, just as customary morality is of a stationary society.
 - a. For the sake of progress, there is the necessity of exercising some discriminating intelligence as to existing conditions.
 - b. Fortunate for social progress, that the morally more advanced members keep their eyes open to the defects of the existing social order.
 - c. Fortunate that some individuals reflect on their own behavior in relation to the existing order as a standing habit of mind.
- (4) Fact that reflective morality requires reflection and a deeper meaning of life than customary morality, makes obvious why many fail to grasp any moral meaning at all in life.
 - a. A "sport" may be so busy in catering to the empty applause of a large leisure class as not to perceive the emptiness of it all.
 - b. A "lady" may be so engaged by the multifarious demands of "society" as never to notice what an utterly worthless round she follows.
 - c. In same way, a man who feels honest because he does not break contracts may be quite at ease about adulterating goods.
 - d. A society which abhors murder with iron in the form of daggers may feel quite unconcerned about preventable deaths by iron machinery in factories.

Suggested Readings:

*Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Ch. IX.

Lea, "Ethical Values in History," Am. Hist. Assn. Report., 1903, 1:53-69.

McMaster, "Old Standards of Public Morals," Am. Hist. Assn. Report., 1905, 1:55-70.

Stephens, Social Rights and Duties, 131-73.
Sumner, Folkways, Ch. XIX.

SECTION 63. THE ETHICS OF MODERN BUSINESS.

- (1) The ethics of modern business for a long time, was that the individual may rightly promote his economic welfare in any way in which the law as enforced does not explicitly prevent.
 - a. To sell as dearly as possible, to buy as cheaply as possible, both produce and labor, are its maxims.
 - b. Of late this existing ethics of business has been held responsible for many of the most serious social evils.
 - c. It is held that this ethics has robbed the laborer of his proportionate share of the profits of production, of the means required for a fair standard of living.
- (2) The reasons for the present ethics of business are to be found in history.
 - a. In early times, the merchant was an alien, outside of the groups of blood-kin; he was outside the pale; a group might do to him or he to them, anything either could.
 - b. Trade at first was not governed, hence, by the usual ethical standards of community or family life.
 - c. Considered excellent business by the merchant if he could steal the natives' women and children.
 - d. The earliest law of trade was the law of theft.
 - e. The regulation of trade in all its branches, was left for centuries in the hands of the merchants themselves.
 - f. For only a little more than a century has the merchant been deprived of his own law.
 - g. The possession of wealth was considered as evidence of the possession of ability and therefore of virtue.
 - h. To the support of the merchant came philosophy, teaching that the good of the individual was supreme.
 - i. Hence the average individual distinctly obtained a strong confirmation of his own idea that the pur-

suance of his selfish ends in any possible way was justifiable and right.

(3) The new ethics of business proposes to abolish the standard of right conduct by which the race has lived.

- a. We are face to face with the fact that the race is essentially primitive in its business relations.
- b. All unconscious of its support modern business is still partly intrenched behind the primitive conception of trade and is fortified by modern philosophy.
- c. The present method of social procedure is to move on and reduce the fortifications.

Suggested Readings :

*Usher, "The Ethics of Business," Atl. Mon., Oct. 1912.

Hadley, Standards of Public Morality, Chs. II, III.

Rauschenbusch, Christianizing the Social Order, Pt. IV.

MacGregor, "Ethical Aspects of Industrialism," Intern. Jour. Ethics, 19:284-96.

Ross, Sin and Society, Ch. I, ff.

SECTION 64. THE BEGINNINGS OF RELIGION.

(1) The science of religion shows that religion is universal and that it springs from an impulse that is native to the human mind.

- a. Religion exists because men find themselves and their world standing over against each other in an antithesis that needs to be resolved.

(2) Four factors are involved in the religious impulse.

- a. A more or less clear realization by man that he is limited.
- b. Human wants always outrun their supply.
- c. The ideal world is taken as the truly real world because of the strength of our felt wants.
- d. The specific qualities are derived from our human experiences.

(3) The unity of all religion: the religions of the world are manifestations of the religion of the world.

- a. Not fair to say that there is one true religion, Christianity, and that all others are false.

- (4) Of the things that all savages possess, religion is one.
 - a. Where the sense of need has sent a human being to hold intercourse with a higher Power, there religion is making its appearance.
- (5) Earliest objects of worship.
 - a. Man early conceived the sun, moon, winds, heaven as beings like himself, as guided by feelings and motives similar to his own.
 - (a) The thunderstorm was a being who had power to end a drought.
 - b. Ancestor-worship,—the ancestor represents the family to which the individual is called to subordinate himself.
 - c. Fetish-worship,—some objects are worshiped not because of intrinsic value, but because a spirit or god is supposed to reside in them.
 - d. Worship of animals,—primitive man respected them for the qualities in which they excelled him.
- (6) Early practices,—in early times, man's religion consisted in the religious acts he did more than in his beliefs as now.
 - a. Sacrifice, an invariable feature of early religion,—in this way, the relation with the deity was renewed, strengthened.
 - b. Prayer is the ordinary concomitant of the sacrifice; the worshipper explains the reason of the gift, urges the deity to accept it, and to grant the help that is needed.
 - c. Taboo is used; what belongs to a deity must not be touched.
 - d. No temple, no idols, no priests in the early world—the worship of nature does not suggest the enclosing of a space for religious acts.
- (7) Primitive man conceived that there was without him that of which his inner consciousness bore him witness.
 - a. An ideal, a being not grasped by the senses, which could help him, which had the power he himself had not.

b. This and not the faulty outward expression was the living and growing element of his religion.

Suggested Readings:

*Menzies, History of Religion, Chs. I, V.

Ribot, Psychology of Emotion, Ch. IX.

Ames, The Psychology of Religious Experience, Pt. II.

Coe, Education in Religion and Morals, Chs. XII, XIII.

SECTION 65. THE EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF RELIGION.

- (1) Primitive groups are essentially animistic; innumerable spirits are worshipped, but this becomes burdensome.
 - a. Then many objects of worship are supplanted by relatively a few deities.
 - b. Polytheism in turn tends to become a source of conflicts and is cumbersome.
 - c. Then the leading deity that is worshipped by the leading tribe becomes supreme—the beginning of monotheism and also of a national religion.
- (2) The national religion rises slowly out of tribal religions.
 - a. The sacred forms are written down and obtain the force of divine laws.
 - b. Men come to know a deity who is higher than their former tribal gods.
 - c. A new social bond—no longer the tie of blood which binds the people to their gods but a more ideal and more spiritual tie.
 - d. Possess a better deity, who belongs to all the tribes and is not the mere partisan of any.
- (3) Some national religions.
 - a. The Inca religion—a state religion which superseded savage cults still remembered in the country.
 - b. Confucianism—ancient state religion with worship of Confucius added to it.
 - (a) A religion in which, as in the primitive stage, outward acts are everything, the doctrine nothing; not regulated by an organized code, but by custom or precedent.

- c. Egyptian religion—centered about the tombs.
 - (a) No other nation ever bestowed so much care on the dead as did the Egyptians; nor thought of the other world so much.
- d. The Greek religion—no sacred books in it, no theology, no religious instruction; but a doctrine of God and concentration of thought on ethical problems of the individual.
 - (a) Later took possession of the Roman world.
- e. Israelitish religion—worship of Yahweh, who never could permit Israel to suffer any fatal injury.

(4) Rise of universal religions.

- a. With the coming of the prophets, the universalism (no longer national) of the Hebrew religion appears.
- b. Another universal religion, bound to spread beyond national limits was growing in India—Buddhism.
- c. The most recent of the so-called universal forms of religion is Mohammedanism.

Suggested Readings:

*Menzies, History of Religion, Ch. VI.

Peschel, in Carver, Sociology and Social Progress, Ch. XI.

Dealey, Sociology, 138-46.

Ross, Social Control, Ch. XVI.

SECTION 66. THE NON-SOCIAL EMPHASIS OF BUDDHISM.

- (1) In Buddhism, the great movement of Indian religion works itself out to its ultimate conclusion.
 - a. Without a god, without prayer, without priesthood or worship.
 - b. Now extinct in India, yet it numbers more adherents than any other religion in China, Japan, Java, Ceylon, Siam, Tibet.
- (2) Gautama, the founder, at age of 29, began to realize that suffering accompanies all existence, scorned a life of rank and ease.

- a. Turned to that retirement and absorption in which it was believed that the key to life's pains and mysteries was to be found.
- b. Finally rose in contemplation, beholding the true nature of things, Buddha, Enlightened.
- c. Sorrow and evil lost all hold on him; he reached emancipation by the destruction of desire.

(3) Doctrine is not socially of a revolutionary character.

- a. Professes to be an answer to an old and definite problem, the problem of pain.
- b. Towards fellowmen, Buddhist morality is based on the equality of all—respect is to be paid to all living beings.
- c. Hatred is to be repaid by love; life is to be filled with kindness and compassion.
- d. Man, if he is to be saved, must save himself by his own efforts; no one can relieve him of any part of his great task.
- e. Buddhism proved popular and spread over many lands, because so simple, in its essence so moral and broadly human.

(4) Social weaknesses of Buddhism.

- a. The believer does not trouble himself about the world, but only about his own salvation.
- b. Is not a social force; aims not at a "kingdom of God."
- c. Is sad and socially depressing.
- d. It checks rather than fosters enterprise; not a power which makes actively for civilization.
- e. Favors a dull conformity to rule, rather than a free cultivation of various gifts.
- f. Its ideal is to empty life of everything active, rather than to concentrate energy on a strong purpose.
- g. It does not train the affections and desires to virtuous and harmonious action, but denies to them all action and consigns them to extinction.

Suggested Readings :

Menzies, History of Religion, Ch. XX.

Rao, "Significance of the Buddhistic Ethics," Westm. Rev., 176:308-19.

Lilly, "Message of Buddhism to the Western World," Fortn. 84:197-214.

Davids, Early Buddhism (entire book).

SECTION 67. THE ANTI-SOCIAL TEACHING OF MOHAMMEDANISM.

- (1) In chronological order, Mohammedanism stands last of the great religions of the world; appeared six centuries after Christianity, and Christian ideas enter into it.
 - a. Mohammed early became connected with Hanyfs or penitents.
 - b. Was forty years of age when the thoughts which had long been working within him burst into open expression through a vision.
 - c. He resorted freely to compromise in order to make his religion and policy suitable to the masses of the people.
 - d. In his earlier teaching, Mohammed speaks of his own religion as being substantially the same as Judaism, but hostility soon developed.
 - e. Allah, whom Mohammed came to reveal is not a historical deity.
 - (a) He is an idea consolidated—originally a title which the Arab conferred on his god whatever the proper name of that being might be.
 - (b) A monotheism of a grave and earnest kind thus made its way beside the old belief in many gods.
- (2) Spread of Mohammedanism—embassies early sent to king of Persia, to the governor of Egypt and other rulers calling upon them to give up their idolatrous worships.
 - a. War against "infidels" was standing program.
 - b. By the sword and sacred wars, Mohammedanism assumes the rôle of a universal religion.

- (3) Has doctrine of the unity and omnipotence of Allah and of the responsibility of every human being to his Creator and Judge.
 - a. Holds to the submissive attitude of the soul, of implicit surrender to the great Allah, of entire acquiescence and entire obedience to his will.
- (4) Its social weakness—is not progressive.
 - a. Allah is but a negative of other deities.
 - (a) He does not inspire with ideals of goodness, but he holds back from evil.
 - (b) He is not a being who is ever likely to enter, like the God of the Jews, into intimate and affectionate relations with men.
 - (c) He is too abstract to be capable of much unbending.
 - (d) He does not sympathize with the manifold growth of human society.
 - (e) Inspiration which he gives is an impulse of hostility to what is over against him, not an impulse to strive after high and fair ideals.
 - (f) He does not enter into humanity and therefore he cannot render to humanity the highest services.

Suggested Readings:

Menzies, History of Religion, Ch. XIII.

Ameer, Ali, Syed, Islam (entire book).

Morrison, "Can Islam be Reformed," 19th Cent. 64:543-51.

Vambery, "Approach between Moslems and Buddhists," 19th Cent., 71:657-66.

SECTION 68. THE SOCIALIZING POWER OF CHRISTIANITY.

- (1) Christianity was at first a movement within Judaism,—from small beginnings, but with a doctrine that, if circumstances favored, could not fail to spread beyond Judea, to men of other lands and tongues.

(2) Its doctrine was that the long-expected intercourse of God and man on new terms of perfect agreement and sympathy had come into operation.

- a. God is the father, men are his children; all that men have to do to realize that this is so, is to enter the circle and begin to live with God on such terms.
- b. Religion is no more, no less than communion of child with his Father.
- c. Father and son dwell together in love and confidence; not a matter of apparatus but an affair of love.
- d. Nothing could be simpler, deeper, broader.
- e. Religion is here presented free from all local, accidental or obscuring elements; religion itself is here revealed.
- f. God inspires man not to any particular kind of acts, nor to withdrawal from the world, but inspires him to realize himself in society.
- g. Prayer is necessary—the child must keep in touch with his Father.
- h. Jesus announced a new union of God with man, a union in which he is the first to rejoice, but which all may share along with him.
 - (a) Jesus formed a circle of disciples and adherents which afterward came to be the Christian Church.
- i. Task of Paul to work out the universality of Christianity.
 - (a) After some conflict, in the church all racial differences disappear; "In Christ there is neither Jew nor Greek."

(3) A comparison with Buddhism and Mohammedanism.

- a. Buddhism is not a full religion; it does not tend to action but to passivity, and affords no help to progress.
- b. Mohammedanism is a yoke rather than an inspiration; it is inwardly hostile to freedom, and is incapable of aiding in higher moral development.

- c. Christianity identifies itself with the cause of freedom, tends to unite all men in one great brotherhood under God who is the Father of all alike—a great if not the greatest socializing force of all times.

Suggested Readings:

*Menzies, History of Religion, Ch. XXII.

Rauschenbusch, Christianizing the Social Order, Pt. II, Ch. VI.

Patten, Social Basis of Religion, Ch. XV.

Nearing, Social Religion, Ch. I. ff.

Batten, Social Task of Christianity, Ch. I. ff.

SECTION 69. THE SOCIAL FUNCTION OF RELIGION AND MODERN RELIGIOUS PROBLEMS.

- (1) All religion of the world is one and religions are everywhere a more or less faulty expression of attempts to reach out to a higher Power.
 - a. The growth of human needs and of the understanding of human needs is the cause of religious growth.
 - b. Tribal religion is characteristic of that stage where man's energies are entirely occupied in the struggle against nature and other tribes.
 - (a) Conditions of life do not permit the mind to develop; his religion is a mass of childish fancies and of fixed traditions.
 - c. State religion: in the state, the leading classes having gained some leisure, ideas of a higher order spring up.
 - (a) The offices of worship are upheld by the whole power of the state.
 - (b) With a growing national worship, the lives of the citizens have been growing richer, and dissatisfaction with a formal state religion has developed.
 - d. Present tendency: a religion free from all that is artificial, with room for intellectual effort and the development of the individual in social service.

- (a) The need for God Himself rather than for His gifts is the developing need.
- (b) Not without a divine call, and not without divine guidance did man set out so early, and persevere so constantly in spite of all his disappointments in the search of God.

(2) Modern problems of religion.

- a. To know more of God and penetrate further into the Unknown; to connect finite life with the Infinite.
- b. To give to all men the highest attained knowledge of God.
- (a) If present religious truth were accepted generally and availed of by men, many great problems would be solved, and great strides would be taken in social progress.
- c. To get people to live up to the religious truth they now have.
 - (a) Economic and selfish impulses tend continually to crowd out the religious.
- d. To get a unified program of religious procedure.

Suggested Readings :

*Menzies, History of Religion, Ch. XXIII.

James, Varieties of Religious Experience, Ch. XX.

Coe, The Spiritual Life, Ch. V.

Kidd, B. in Carver, Sociology and Social Progress, Ch. XVIII.

Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. II, Ch. XI.

Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter VIII.

Addams, J., Democracy and Social Ethics, Macm.: 1907.

Ameer Ali, Syed, Islam, Open Court: 1906.

Ames, E. S., Psychology of Religious Experiences, Houghton, Mifflin: 1910.

Batten, S. Z., Social Task of Christianity, Revell: 1911.

Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm.: 1905.

Carver, T. N., Sociology and Social Progress, Ginn: 1905.

Coe, G. A., The Spiritual Life, Eaton and Mains: 1900.

Coe, G. A., Education in Religion and Morals, Revell: 1904.

Davids, T. W. R., Early Buddhism, Open Court.
Dealey, J. Q., Sociology, Silver, Burdett: 1909.
Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Holt: 1908.
Ely, R. T., Social Aspects of Christianity, Crowell: 1889.
Hadley, A. T., Standards of Public Morality, Macm.: 1908.
King, H. C., Ethics of Jesus, Macm.: 1912.
Mathews, S., The Social Teaching of Jesus, Macm.: 1910.
Menzies, A., History of Religion, Scribner's: 1906.
Nearing, Scott, Social Religion, Macm.: 1913.
Patten, S. N., Social Basis of Religion, Macm.: 1912.
Paulsen, F., System of Ethics, Scribner's: 1906.
Peabody, F., Jesus Christ and the Social Question, Macm.: 1912.
Peabody, F., Jesus Christ and the Christian Character, Macm.: 1905.
Rauschenbusch, W., Christianity and the Social Crisis, Macm.: 1907.
Rauschenbusch, W., Christianizing the Social Order, Macm.: 1912.
Ribot, Th., Psychology of the Emotions, Scribner's: 1911.
Ross, E. A., Social Control, Macm.: 1910.
Small, A. W., General Sociology, Univ. of Chi. Pr.: 1905.
Sorley, W. R., The Moral Life, Univ. of Cambr. Pr.: 1911.
Spencer, H., Principles of Ethics, Appleton: 1892.
Stephen, F., Social Rights and Duties, Sonnenschein: 1896.
Sumner, W. G., Folkways, Ginn: 1907.
Westermarck, E., Origin and Development of Moral Ideals, Macm.: 1906.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter VIII.

1. A Study of Sumner's *Folkways*.
2. Sources of Your Standards of Right and Wrong.
3. A Study of College Honor.
4. Social Duties from a Christian Point of View.
5. The Moral Influence of Inter-collegiate Athletic Contests.
6. High School Boys' Morals.
7. Moral Standards in the Schools.
8. Double Standards of Morality.

9. A Survey of Moral Progress in the Race..
10. Moral Character as Developed by Plays and Games.
11. Social Morality and Public Recreation.
12. The Relation between Church and Labor.
13. Religious Training in the Public Schools.
14. A Rural Church in a Given Community.
15. The Work and Organization of the Salvation Army in Your City.
16. The Minister as a Social Servant.
17. Analysis of Writings of Rauschenbusch.
18. A Comparison of Christianity and Judaism from a Social Viewpoint.
19. The Relation of Religion to Politics.
20. The History and Social Activities (and possibilities) of Your Church.
21. Relation of Christianity to Capitalism.
22. The Social Awakening of the Churches.

CHAPTER IX.

AESTHETIC FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 70. THE EARLIEST EXPRESSIONS OF THE AESTHETIC FEELINGS.

- (1) The beautifying of any object is due to impulses which are common to all men.
 - a. Birth of the embellishing art may be sought in that stage of animal development when instinct began to discover that certain adornments increased attractiveness.
 - b. When art in its human sense came into existence, ideas of embellishment soon extended from the person to adornment of all things with which man had to deal.
 - c. Art appears among all peoples and in all periods as a social manifestation.
 - (a) We renounce at once the comprehension of its nature and its significance if it is regarded simply as an individual phenomenon.
- (2) Certain needs of man seem to have constrained him to artistic effort.
 - a. Art for art's sake, for the sensuous pleasure of form, hue, color, and sound.
 - b. Information—to convey information, when oral or gesture language is impossible, recourse must be had to pictorial signs of one form or another.
 - c. Wealth—the desire for enhancing the value of personal property has led to production of ornamentation.
 - d. Religion—man's need to put himself into sympathetic relation with unseen powers has always expressed itself in visual form.

(3) Two groups of arts: the arts of rest strive to please through "resting"; the arts of motion strive to please through moving forms.

- a. Arts of rest—decoration, painting, sculpture—sometimes designated the graphic and plastic arts.
 - (a) Object to which decoration was earliest applied was human body, then to implements and weapons.
 - (b) This was followed by works of free painting and sculpture.
- b. Arts of motion—dance, song and poetry, music.
 - (a) The dance which may be conceived as living sculpture, forms the transition from the arts of rest to the arts of motion.
 - (b) Among primitive peoples, the folk-dances, etc., are adapted more than any other form of art to deepen the knowledge of the social importance of art.

Suggested Readings:

*Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Chs. III, IV.

Von Reber, Fr., History of Ancient Art, 1-98.

Knight, The Philosophy of the Beautiful, Vol. I, Chs. I, II.

Ribot, Psychology of Emotions, Pt. II, Ch. X.

Ross, Social Control, Ch. XX.

Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Child Study, 209-12.

SECTION 71. PERSONAL DECORATION AND THE DESIRE TO PLEASE.

(1) All hunting peoples are much more richly and carefully decorated than clothed.

- a. Primitive ornament may be fixed or movable; the fixed includes all permanent cosmetic modifications of the body such as scarification, tattooing, boring of the nose, lips, and ears.
- b. Movable ornament, loosely and temporarily connected with the body, includes tassels, bands, girdles, rings, pendants.

- (2) Painting of the body most eminently represents the original form of decoration; prevails quite generally in lowest grades of culture.
 - a. In his everyday life, the Australian is satisfied with a few spots on his cheeks and shoulders, but on festive occasions he extends the painting over his whole body.
 - b. Painting for mourning purposes prevails: the white European mourns in black clothes, the black Australian mourns in white earth.
 - c. As white women try to enhance their attractiveness by powder and chalk, so the black races try to increase the attractiveness of their dark skins by means of fat and charcoal dust.
- (3) Bodily decoration by painting is transitory, hence pains have been taken to impress the design on the body in some lasting way.
 - a. The two means of accomplishing this which have spread over almost the whole earth are scarification and tattooing.
 - b. Scarification has found practice only among dark-skinned peoples, for the scars stand out only on a dark skin.
 - c. Tattooing has spread only among fairer peoples for a similar reason.
- (4) Dressing of the hair forms a transition from movable to permanent decoration, so far as it is governed by aesthetic considerations.
 - a. Sometimes the hair is thickly kneaded with red ochre and fat, and feathers, crabs' claws, etc., are stuck in the viscous locks.
 - b. Birds have to bear the principal part of the expense of the primitive headdress everywhere.
- (5) The feather has maintained its original place in decoration throughout the changes of culture until to-day.
 - a. It waves on the helmets of the civilized as well as on the headband of the primitive warrior.
 - b. Even the Bushman's fashion of wearing whole birds' heads has been lifted into honor again.

- (6) Civilization has never succeeded in freeing itself from the decorative forms which strike us most strangely in primitive men.
 - a. Development of decoration has increased the range of material and refined its technique.
 - b. But it has not been able to contribute even so much as one essentially new piece to the primitive stock of forms.
- (7) The first and most powerful motive that induces men to decorate themselves is undoubtedly the desire to please.

Suggested Readings:

*Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. III.

Ratzel, History of Mankind, 1:93-106, and in Thomas, Source Book, 549-58.

Bascom, Aesthetics, Lect. III.

Haddon, Evolution in Art, 2-10; in Thomas, Source Book, 543-49.

SECTION 72. ORNAMENTATION AND ARCHITECTURE AS EXPRESSIONS OF HUMAN DESIRES.

- (1) In addition to personal decoration, ornamentation of implements, weapons, and of other objects early developed.
 - a. Ornamentations of primitive peoples are copies of natural forms; not purely geometrical figures as they may appear, but they seem to be derived from animal forms.
 - b. Our ornamental art likewise applies such natural motives in richest measure; scarcely an ornamental object that is not adorned with leaf, flower, or vine work.
 - c. The principle of rhythmic arrangement is not less plainly and frequently evident in the art of lowest savages than in that of the most highly civilized peoples.
 - (a) Pleasure in rhythm (in this case, in the repetition of a figure), is in reality a universal human property.

- d. Decoration demands and promotes a technical skill, which works in its turn to the benefit of practical interests.
 - (a) An unsymmetrically shaped weapon does not hit with the same accuracy as a symmetrical one.
- e. Modern shameful prostitution of ornamental art to the interests of our modern manufacturing enterprise has now, largely, destroyed its charm and force.

(2) Architecture exhibits the intellectual and emotional resources of man.

- a. In landscape gardening, man presents the work of God, living products; but in architecture, he presents his own work and his power over materials.
- b. Architecture comes under the law of utility: men do not say, I shall build beauty, but I shall build a beautiful building.
- c. The utilities which architecture seeks fall into three classes.
 - (a) Buildings for protection constitute the first and larger class of edifices; unsheltered man has sought shelter.
 - (b) Structures for purposes of transit—bridges, aqueducts, tunnels.
 - (c) A monumental class of structures, memorials for the dead and to commemorate historic events.
- d. In modern cities, iron begins to occupy the place once occupied by stone, with this loss, that it makes the most elaborate architecture relatively cheap.

Suggested Readings :

- *Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. VI.
- Bascom, Aesthetics, Lect. XII.
- Knight, Philosophy of the Beautiful, Vol. II, Ch. X.
- Raymond, Painting, Sculpture and Architecture, Ch. XIII.

SECTION 73. THE SOCIAL VALUE OF THE REPRESENTATIVE ARTS: PAINTING, SCULPTURE.

- (1) Primitive tribes have distinguished themselves by,
 - a. High faculty for making pictorial representations true to nature.
 - b. While civilized peoples chose their art motives from art in general, primitive representative art is limited almost entirely to human and animal forms.
 - c. Without doubt, primitive man applied as much patience, labor, enthusiasm to his works of art, as Raphael and Angelo to the wall paintings in the Sistine Chapel and the Vatican.
 - d. Our canvas paintings have their analogies in Australia in the drawings which the aborigines make on soot-blackened pieces of hide.
 - (a) These artists endeavor to repeat the natural forms and movements in the most characteristic manner possible.
 - (b) They have with their rude tools reached a degree of success in this which the most cultivated moderns, with abundant appliances are never able to attain.
 - (c) Such success has been brought sharply to our comprehension only by means of instantaneous photography.
- (2) What conditions made such high artistic achievements possible in so low a culture?
 - a. Because the faculty of observation and handiness of execution are the two indispensable requisites for the primitive life of the chase.
 - b. Pictorial talent is more universally diffused among primitive peoples than among moderns because most primitives have the faculty of observation and of execution of a good hunter.
 - (a) With agricultural people, these faculties deteriorate.
- (3) The scope of painting—includes a greater variety of subjects than any other art save poetry.

- a. Nothing is grander than this work well done, for the whole force of life-long histories is delivered in one moment of time to the vision.
 - (a) We see the currents of affection and passion as they surge on in full volume.
- (4) While sculpture is the most laborious, it is the most imperishable of the arts.
 - a. Sculpture must maintain a certain high pitch, or like a wounded bird, it goes fluttering down below the horizon.
- (5) In the Renaissance, representative art at its height, was the queen of the arts and incorporated in marble, bronze, and colors the religious and social ideas around which the burghers rallied.
 - a. In the sight of which, they felt as one people and as one community.

Suggested Readings:

*Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. VII.

Bascom, Aesthetics, Lects. XV-XVII.

Knight, Philosophy of the Beautiful, Vol. II, Chs. XI, XII.

Raymond, Painting, Sculpture and Architecture, Ch. XIII.

SECTION 74. THE SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OF THE PRIMITIVE DANCE AND ITS MODERN DEGENERATION.

- (1) The primitive dance is the most immediate, most perfect, and most efficient expression of the primitive aesthetic feeling.
 - a. The great social power which the living picture, the dance, once possessed, can hardly be guessed to-day.
 - b. War dances and love dances and similar mimetic dances constitute the transition to the drama.
 - c. To distinguish between the dance and drama among primitive peoples, we must depend on an external mark—the presence or absence of rhythm.
 - d. The social significance of the primitive dance lies in the effect of social unification.

- (a) The dances of the hunting peoples are, as a rule, mass dances.
- (b) Usually executed by men alone; women furnish musical accompaniment.
- (c) The dancing group feels and acts like a single organism.
- (d) It accustoms a number of men who in their precarious conditions are driven hither and thither by different individual needs, to act under one impulse with one feeling for one object.

(2) The degeneration of the dance.

- a. As tribes grow, the members become too numerous to join in a common dance; in this way the dance gradually loses its socializing function.
- b. Leading function left to the dance is that of facilitating the mutual approach of the sexes.
- c. The ballet of civilization with its repulsive sprawling attitudes and distorted perversions of nature may at best but satisfy vulgar curiosity.
- d. The modern dance presents itself chiefly as a vestigial organ, relatively useless in consequence of changed conditions of life.
 - (a) Its former great social function has long since been transferred to the other arts.
 - (b) What the dance was to the social life of hunting peoples, poetry is for civilized nations.

Suggested Readings:

- *Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. VIII; and in Thomas' Source Book, 577-93.
- Hall, Educational Problems, 1:42-90.
- Worcester, "Field Sports Among the Wild Men of Northern Luzon," Nat. Geog. M. 22:215-67.
- Knight, Philosophy of the Beautiful, Vol. II, Ch. XIV.

SECTION 75. THE SOCIAL POWER OF THE IMAGINATION AND FEELINGS AS EXPRESSED THROUGH POETRY AND ORATORY.

- (1) Poetry—the verbal representation of external or internal phenomena in an aesthetically effective form for an aesthetic purpose.
 - a. All poetry comes from feeling and goes to feeling, and therein lies the mystery of its creation and influence.
 - b. The lyrics, generally, of hunting peoples betray a thoroughly egoistic character; the poet sings of his personal sufferings and joys, the fortunes of his fellow-men rarely elicit a sound from him.
- (2) We honor poetry as the most effective art: borne by mighty geniuses, poetry rose centuries ago to uncontested predominance in Europe.
 - a. Modern history marks whole epochs of civilization with the name of some poet or poem.
 - b. Poetry has more than once, through a single work, impressed a peculiar stamp upon a whole generation.
 - c. Poetry unites men (whom the interests of life separate) by invoking the same feelings in all; by constantly repeating the innovation, it finally produces a lasting unity of mood.
 - d. Poetry accomplishes more, it not only unites men, it elevates them also.
 - (a) Awakens in others a more refined and richer emotional life than that which practical life has matured in them.
 - e. Poetry still connects succeeding generations; posterity thus recognizes the voices of its ancestors.
 - f. Poetry can as readily turn its power to evil as to good; an epidemic to-day of lowest cheap romances which needs correction.
- (3) Oratory inclines toward a fine art so far as it masters the feelings by emotional delivery; its persuasive power enters with the quality and inflection of the voice.

- a. There is hardly any man, illiterate or educated, so destitute of sensibility that is not moved by the music of eloquent speech.
- b. When it divests men of their peculiar qualities and affections and unites a vast multitude, giving them but one heart, one pulse and one voice, then it becomes a great social power.
- c. To penetrate the souls of men and make them feel as if they were new creatures, conscious of new powers and loftier purposes, this is the social function of the orator.

Suggested Readings:

*Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. IX.

Mathews, Oratory and Orators, Ch. I.

Bascom, Aesthetics, Lect. 20.

Alexander, Poetry and the Individual, Ch. II.

Puffer, Psychology of Beauty, Ch. VI.

SECTION 76. THE SOCIAL MEANING OF MUSIC.

- (1) First musical instrument of mankind was without doubt, the voice.
 - a. Vocal music prevails decidedly over instrumental in the lowest stages of civilization.
 - b. In lower culture, the rhythm with its strictly observed regularity appears everywhere as against harmony.
- (2) Musical endowment of different peoples appears just as capricious and independent in its diversity as the same gift does in its individual manifestations.
 - a. Any person though he may possess very little general culture may receive higher musical impressions than the cultivated man.
 - b. Musical talent may be wholly wanting in persons of high intellectual and even artistic capacity.
 - c. The civilization of a people is essentially independent of its music; Beethoven's instrumental music is farthest from real life.
 - d. In one sense, music can say: "My kingdom is not of this world."

(3) By its appeal to the feelings, music has a great social influence.

- a. The singing together of the members of a group unites them.
- b. It is said that the whole people in the time of the Reformation sang themselves into enthusiasm for the new faith.
- c. Above all, music has the power of inflaming the martial spirit.
 - (a) In Luther's powerful battle song—the melody strides along as if it were in harness.
 - (b) No army has yet been able to dispense with martial music.

Suggested Readings:

*Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. X.
Hall, Educational Problems, 1:91-135.
Bascom, Aesthetics, Lect. XIX.
Knight, Philosophy of the Beautiful, Vol. II, Ch. IX.
Puffer, Psychology of Beauty, Ch. V.

SECTION 77. THE SOCIAL FUNCTION OF AESTHETICS.

- (1) Effort is artistic which through its whole course or by its result arouses aesthetic feelings.
 - a. The artistic tendency is without doubt a general possession of mankind.
- (2) The unity of primitive art stands in the sharpest contrast to the diversity of primitive races; there is no people without art.
 - a. The primitive arts affect primitive life in diversified ways.
 - (a) Ornamentation pre-eminently promotes technical skill.
 - (b) Poetry, the dance, and music arise because they inflame and inspire the warriors—the bulwarks of the social against hostile assaults.
 - (c) But the most efficient and most beneficent effect which art exercises over the life of peo-

ples consists in the strengthening and extension of the social bonds to which it contributes.

(3) The social significance of the individual arts has changed in the course of the ages.

- a. The most powerful social influence among the hunting peoples was vested in the dance.
- b. To the Greeks, sculpture incorporated the social ideal in its most effective form.
- c. In the Middle Ages, architecture united bodies and souls in the halls of its gigantic cathedrals.
- d. In the Renaissance painting spoke a language that was understood by all the civilized peoples of Europe.
- e. In the modern age, the relaxing voice of poetry resounds mightily over the clash of arms of hostile conditions and peoples.

(4) The social significance of art has continuously increased.

- a. The educational influence which it has exercised on the rudest tribes has steadily broadened and risen.
- b. While highest social function of primitive art consisted in unification, civilized art with its richer and more individually executed works, serves not for unification only, but primarily for the elevation of the spirit.
- c. As science enriches and elevates our intellectual life, so art enriches and elevates our emotional life.

Suggested Readings :

- *Grosse, Beginnings of Art, Ch. XI.
- Wright, Practical Sociology, 331-42.
- Baldwin, Social and Ethical Interpretations, 156-62.
- Day, Science of Aesthetics, Ch. V.
- Raymond, Education, Art and Civics, 35-69.
- Dealey and Ward, Text-book of Sociology, 142-48.

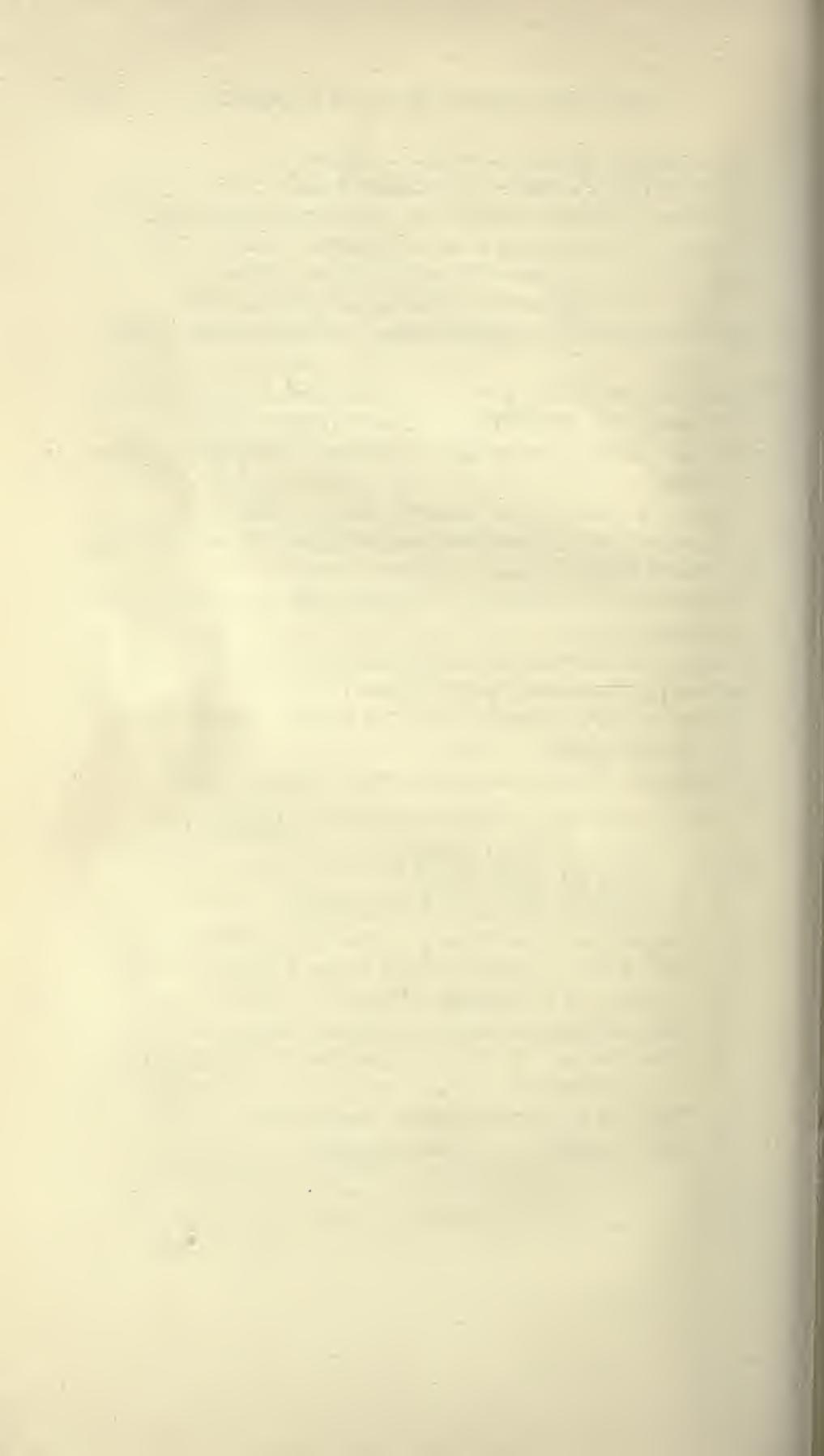
Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter IX.

- Alexander, H. B., Poetry and the Individual, Putnam: 1906.
- Baldwin, J. M., Social and Ethical Interpretations, Macm: 1906.

Bascom, J., *Aesthetics*, Putnam: 1904.
Day, H. N., *Science of Aesthetics*, Putnam: 1902.
Dealey & Ward, *Text-book of Sociology*, Macm: 1905.
Gross, E., *Beginnings of Art*, Appleton: 1900.
Haddon, A. C., *Evolution in Art*, Scott: 1895.
Hall, G. S., *Educational Problems*, Appleton, 1911.
Kirkpatrick, E. A., *Fundamentals of Child Study*, Macm: 1908.
Knight, W., *Philosophy of the Beautiful*, Scribner's: 1905.
Mathews, W., *Oratory and Orators*, Griggs: 1896.
Puffer, E. D., *Psychology of Beauty*, Houghton, Mifflin: 1906.
Ratzel, F., *History of Mankind*, Macm: 1896.
Raymond, G. L., *Education, Art and Civics*, Funk and Wag-nalls: 1911.
Raymond, G. L., *Painting, Sculpture and Architecture*, Put-nam: 1909.
Ribot, Th., *Psychology of the Emotions*, Scribner's: 1911.
Ross, E. A., *Social Control*, Macm: 1910.
Thomas, W. I., *Source Book for Social Origins*, Univ. of Chi. Pr.: 1909.
Wright, C. D., *Practical Sociology*, Longmans: 1909.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter IX.

1. A Study of Social Hymns.
2. A Study of Battle Songs.
3. Sociological Influence of Shakespeare.
4. Aesthetics in the History of the United States.
5. The Role of Imagination in Social Progress.
6. A Plot for a Sociological Play.
7. The Influence of the Drama upon Society.
8. The Theater: Its Present Status and Possibilities as a Social Factor.
9. The Art Contributed by the Immigrant.
10. Civic Aesthetics and City Planning.



CHAPTER X.

INTELLECTUAL FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 78. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS OF INTELLECTUAL FACTORS.

- (1) In people of certain type, the curiosity impulse may become the main source of intellectual energy and effort.
 - a. Rooted in it are man's speculative and scientific tendencies.
 - b. It must be regarded as one of the principal roots of science.
- (2) The native excitant of the curiosity impulse would seem to be any object similar to, yet perceptibly different from familiar things habitually noticed.
 - a. A small element of the strange or unusual may excite curiosity although a pronounced degree of it tends to excite fear except in the strongest minds.
- (3) The free and effective operation of the speculative and scientific tendencies in any society is the gauge of that society's position in the scale of civilization.
 - a. It is also the principal condition of the progress of a people in all that constitutes civilization.
- (4) Knowledge as an achievement by itself calls for a going out in thought as far as possible from the thinker's personal function.
 - a. Calls for a discovering of the content and meaning of the whole life process, within which the thinker occupies a space.
 - b. One is not a well-working *socius* unless he has the knowledge necessary to play his own part in the social process.
- (5) Two kinds of valuations which we actually pass upon the intellectual factor in conduct.

- a. Knowledge as a means of maintaining the standard of life—this is in practical demand.
- b. Knowledge as a vision of the meaning of life and of what the standard of life should be—needed by everyone, but in far less general demand.
- c. Hence our knowledge interest tends to scale up and down from the meaning of the nearest details of our individual lives, at one extreme, to the largest correlation of the total life-process, past, present and future at the other.

Suggested Readings:

*McDougall, Social Psychology, 57, 315.
Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. VI.
Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. III, Ch. V.
Ribot, Psychology of Emotion, Pt. II, Ch. XI.
Small, General Sociology, 461-64.
Dealey & Ward, Text-book of Sociology, 148-58.

SECTION 79. THE EARLIEST SIGNS OF THE PRESENCE OF MIND.

- (1) What are the most general classes of expressive signs by which living beings that have minds manifest to us their mental life?
- (2) The first type of the signs of mind are signs of discriminating sensitiveness of two kinds:
 - a. The signs of feeling, i. e., of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
 - (a) In the young child, we meet with reactions of fear, of anger.
 - (b) The forms that have life seem to show signs of more or less immediately valuing their own state or their own relation to their environment.
 - b. Not simply a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction but a tendency to react in such a way to the outside world as seems to show that they discriminate between these various classes of physical facts.

- (a) The reactions tend to be different for different stimuli, and same for same stimuli.
- (b) Hence a pupil suffering from a slight deafness may be slow in responding, and thus be unjustly accused of stupidity.
- c. The signs of mental life may thus be misinterpreted; what is due to a defect of sense organs is judged as a defect of the mind.

(3) The second type of the signs of mind are the signs of docility.

- a. Every being with a mind shows a disposition to be determined in its present action by what has happened to it *in the past*, i. e., learns by *experience*.
- b. Intelligent activities are always due, in creatures like ourselves, to the influence of former experiences upon present consciousness and ways of acting.

(4) The third type of signs of mind are the signs of *mental initiative*.

- a. These signs are suggested by such variations of intelligent habits as cannot readily be explained either by the present sense disturbances or by the former experiences and habits of the organism in question.
- b. The particular reaction seems to be rather directly due not to the disturbance itself, but to something initiated within the organism.
- c. The fitting response seems often to partake of the nature of a thoughtful invention—the basis of social progress.

Suggested Readings:

- *Royce, Outlines of Psychology, Ch. II.
- Dewey, in Thomas' Source Book, 173-86.
- Boas, The Mind of Primitive Man, Ch. I.
- Baldwin, Mental Development, 161-275.
- Hobhouse, Mind in Evolution, 1-10.

SECTION 80. THE MIND OF PRIMITIVE MAN.

(1) A delusion probably that the white race has one order of mind and that the black and yellow races have another.

- a. The fact that one race (the white, e. g.) has advanced further in culture does not necessarily imply a different order of brain.
 - (a) It may mean that social arrangements have been more favorable to the operations of the mind in one case than in the other.
- b. The instinct to belittle outsiders perhaps at the bottom of the delusion; no race views another race with that generosity with which it views itself.
 - (a) It may be said that the existence of a social group depends on its taking an exaggerated view of its own importance.

(2) Are the characteristic faculties of the human mind, e. g., perception, memory, inhibition, abstraction, absent or noticeably weak in the primitive races?

- a. Need not dwell on acuteness of sense—perceptions—it is generally allowed that the savages have greater acuity of the senses than the white man.
- b. The memory of the lower races is quite as good as that of the higher.
 - (a) Perhaps no one could claim that the modern scientist has a better memory than the bard of the Homeric period.
- c. Inhibition—The American Indian makes inhibition the most conspicuous feature in his system of education.
 - (a) From the day of his birth when the ice is broken to give him a cold plunge and thus start the toughening process till he dies without groan under torture—a series of inhibitions.
 - (b) Savage inhibits in case of taboo: the Eskimo, though starving will not touch the sacred seal basking before his hut.
- d. Power of abstraction—the degree to which abstraction is employed in the activities of a group depends upon the complexities of the activities.

- (a) When science is taught in the schools and when thought is a profession, then abstract modes of thought are forced on the mind.
- (b) The proverb is a form of abstraction practiced by all primitive races.
- (c) Mechanical inventions represent high power of abstraction; primitive man invents.
- (d) While modern inventions are magnificent yet when we consider the precedents and accumulated knowledge with which the modern investigator works and the resourcelessness of primitive man in materials and ideas, the bow and arrow may be considered the most wonderful invention in the world.

(3) If the order of the mind of all races is relatively the same then it becomes possible to raise all mankind through education to our highest levels.

Suggested Readings:

Thomas, Source Book for Social Origins, 155-73.
Mason, Origins of Inventions, 13-32.
Boas, The Mind of Primitive Man, Ch. IV.
Dewey, "Interpretation of Savage Mind," Psych. Rev., 9:217-30, and in Thomas' Source Book, 173-86.
Brinton, Basis of Human Relations, Ch. I.
Dealey and Ward, Text-book of Sociology, Chs. XVII, XVIII.

SECTION 81. THE ACHIEVEMENT OF AN ALPHABET.

- (1) We start with man as a sign or symbol-maker.
 - a. On fragments of bone, horn and other materials the savage hunter of prehistoric periods using pointed pieces of flint drew outlines of himself and of the animals he pursued.
 - b. The pictograph is the parent of the alphabet.
- (2) Four well-marked stages of the primitive forms of which all alphabets are the abbreviated descendants.
 - a. The mnemonic, or memory-aiding, when some tangible object is used as a message, or for record, be-

tween people at a distance, and also for the purpose of accrediting the messenger.

- b. The pictorial—in which a picture of the thing is given, whereby at a glance it tells its own story.
- c. The ideographic—in which the picture becomes representative, represents an idea, is converted into a symbol.
- d. The phonetic—in which the picture becomes a phonogram, or sound—repeating sign—the phonogram may be one of three types:
 - (a) Verbal,—a sound-sign for a whole word.
 - (b) Syllabic,—a sound-sign for each syllable.
 - (c) Alphabetic,—a sound-sign for each letter.

(3) In the alphabetic stage, the sign as eye-picture suggests the sound, independent of the meaning of the sound.

- a. It was very long before it dawned upon men that all the words which men utter are expressed by a few sounds.
- b. It was in the passage from the ideographic to the alphabetic stage whereby constant signs are chosen to stand for constant sounds that the progress of the human race was assured.
 - (a) This means the birth of an alphabet, one of the most momentous triumphs of the human mind.
 - (b) Only thereby was the preservation of all that is of abiding value made possible.

(4) Of two hundred and fifty alphabets which have come into being since prehistoric man, some fifty have survived.

- a. Half of these are found in India, locally used.
- b. The rest are, in the main, variations of three scripts: Chinese, Arabic, Roman.
- c. An outlook on the world's course indicates that it is with the Roman, as the vehicle of culture of the most advancing races that there lies the maintenance of supremacy and the extension of its sway.

(5) Great debt is due him who invented the few numerals, the relative places of which serve the purpose of recording the commerce of the world.

- a. Greater admiration is due him who devised the nought or cipher, without which the labor of calculating and recording would have taxed human energy beyond endurance.

Suggested Readings :

Clodd, The Story of the Alphabet, Chs. II, III.

Huey, Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, Chs. X, XI.

Judd, Genetic Psychology, Ch. VII.

Abbott, Evolution of the Forms of Our Alphabet, Mod.

Philol, 2:307-19.

SECTION 82. LITERATURE AS AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF CIVILIZATION.

- (1) Literature may be considered as the best expression of the best thought reduced to writing.
 - a. Its various forms are the result of race peculiarities or of diverse individual temperaments, or of political circumstances securing the predominance of one social class which is thus enabled to propagate its ideas and sentiments.
- (2) In early stages of society, the classes which first attain a distinct literacy utterance are priests who compile the chronicles of tribal religious development, or rhapsodists who celebrate the prowess of tribal chiefs.
 - a. As man feels before he reasons, so poetry generally precedes prose.
 - (a) Hence sacred books and war-songs are everywhere the earliest literacy monuments.
 - (b) The epical record of the past was supplemented by the lyrical record of contemporary events.
- (3) Prose of any permanent value first showed itself in the form of oratory.
 - a. The development of abstract reasoning tended to deprive poetry of its ornament and to provide a simpler and more accurate instrument.
 - b. The evolution of literature is completed in Greece.

- (a) No new form has been invented since the days of Plato.
- (b) Roughly speaking, all subsequent literature has been imitative of form.
- (4) For five centuries during the Dark Ages, not a single literary masterpiece was produced.
- (5) From the 11th to 14th century, France was the center of intellectual life in Europe.
 - a. Then developed great literary personalities in Italy, England, and Germany, together with the beginnings of philosophic and scientific writings.
- (6) At present, literature is in a state of flux; it is less national than formerly and yet fails of being cosmopolitan.
 - a. Literature, as such, suffers from the competition of the newspaper press.
 - b. A large and growing body of scientific and philosophic literature of great social value is one of the striking signs of the times in considering modern world literature as an autobiography of civilization.

Suggested Readings:

Moulton, World Literature and Its Place in General Culture, 1-53, 439-65.

Ross, Changing America, Ch. VII.

Everett, "Literature and Statesmanship," Putnam's, 2:222-8.

Howell's, "Commercialization of Literature," Harper's, 112: 472-5.

SECTION 83. THE MODERN NEWSPAPER AS AN INTELLECTUAL FACTOR.

- (1) The newspaper cannot be expected to remain dignified and serious, now that it caters so largely to the masses instead of, as formerly, to the professional and business classes.
 - a. To interest errand-boy, factory-girl, and raw immigrant, it had to become spicy, amusing, emotional.
- (2) The capitalist-owner supplants the editor-owner.
 - a. Today, a million dollars is necessary to outfit a metropolitan newspaper.

- b. The editor is no longer the owner, for he has not, and cannot command, the capital needed.
- c. The editor of the type of Greeley or Dana who owns his paper and makes it the projection of his character and ideals is rare.
- d. The editors now are hired; they may put no more of their conscience into the paper than comports with getting financial returns from the investment.
- e. The modern metropolitan paper is likely to become a factory where ink and brains are so applied to white paper as to turn out the largest possible marketable product.

(3) Advertising censors the news.

- a. The dissemination of news and the selling of publicity are two essentially distinct functions, but carried on by the same agency.
 - (a) One is a matter of democracy; the other, of commerce.
- b. Every year the sale of advertising yields a larger proportion of the total receipts; the subscribers, a smaller.
 - (a) To-day, advertising yields at least two-thirds of the earnings of the daily newspaper.
 - (b) In the larger dailies, the receipts from advertisers are several times the receipts from the readers, in some cases constituting 90% of the total revenues.
 - (c) Hence, the advertiser supports the newspaper.
- c. "He who pays the piper, calls the tune."
- d. When news-columns and editorial page become a mere incident in the profitable sale of mercantile publicity, it is strictly "business-like" to let the big advertisers censor both.

(4) The increasing herd of "sacred cows."

- a. Corporations who are big advertisers are jocularly referred to in some editorial offices as "sacred cows."

- (a) The editors and sub-editors are under instructions not to print anything damaging to these concerns.
- b. Nearly every form of privilege is found in the herd of "sacred cows" venerated by a part of the daily press.
- (5) The magnate-owner may make his newspaper—on the sly—an instrument for coloring certain kinds of news, or for fostering certain impressions or prejudices.
- (6) What is needed is a broader avenue to the public mind.
 - a. Needed: more newspapers that ignore the threats of big advertisers or powerful interests, and give the truth about police protection to vice, corporate tax-dodging, the non-enforcement of social laws, etc.

Suggested Readings:

*Ross, *Changing America*, Ch. VII.

Rogers, *The American Newspaper*, Ch. I.

An Independent Journalist, Amer. Jour. of Sociol., 15:321-34.

Shuman, *Practical Journalism*, Ch. I. ff.

Thomas, "The Psychology of Yellow Journalism," Amer. Mag., March, 1908.

SECTION 84. SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION.

- (1) The sharing by a child in the race's life and in racial experience is education as viewed by sociology.
 - a. The child begins life in ignorance of himself and of his world; he begins where primitive man began.
 - b. The experience of the human race has been accumulating; into this racial experience the child is born and from it he receives the advantages of the centuries.
 - c. The first three years of a child's life are spent in getting possession of his body; the years from 3 to 26 or more are the special period of adjustment to his spiritual environment.
- (2) What are the elements of the spiritual environment?

- a. The intellectual, or what is known, is commonly called Science.
 - (a) Science is a product of the effort of the mind to know the truth concerning reality.
 - (b) No student can attain the universal knowledge which the race has discovered; but he can know enough truth to free him from superstition, to keep his mind open, to get the message of courage, that comes from the scientific achievements of the race.
- b. The emotional, or what is felt, may be expressed in terms of religion.
 - (a) The child who early learns to see God and to feel inspired in the presence of His handiwork, will hate ugliness, the imperfect, meanness, littleness.
- c. The volitional,—the race has been active, original, and energetic in moulding the circumstances into which it was naturally cast.
 - (a) The volitional environment is what man has achieved; it is the monument to the will of man.

(3) What are the social effects of reproducing the spiritual environment of the race?

- a. The conservation of the past—the fragments of past achievements are gathered up that nothing be lost.
 - (a) Education preserves the past as the basis upon which to build the more stately mansions of human welfare.
- b. The preservation of the present,—by developing self-control in the individual members of society and by binding their affections to human institutions.
- c. The progress of the future,—education actively initiates.
 - (a) Progress in knowledge of whatever kind must always come only from him who is already familiar with what has been done in his field.
 - (b) The scientist is daring, making progress a fact.

Suggested Readings:

- *Horne, *The Philosophy of Education*, Chs. IV, V.
- Blackmar, *Elements of Sociology*, Bk. IV, Ch. IV.
- Dealey, *Sociology*, Ch. VIII.
- Nearing, *Social Adjustment*, Ch. III.
- Addams, *Democracy and Social Ethics*, Ch. VI.
- Libby, "The Socialization of the College," *Pop. Sci. Mon.*, Jan., 1913, 76-84.

SECTION 85. THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM AND ITS MOST DIFFICULT PROBLEM.

- (1) In all schools in the United States—20,000,000 pupils (1911).
 - a. 18,400,000 in the elementary schools; 1,110,000 pupils in the high schools; 180,000, in colleges and universities; 65,000, in the professional schools.
 - b. In the public schools are 524,000 teachers (1910)—114,000 men and 410,000 women.
 - c. Each year, \$425,000,000 is turned over to the public school system.
 - (a) Each year the nation spends upon the public schools a sum sufficient to construct a Panama Canal.
 - (b) This great school system is the greatest public investment in the United States.
- (2) Four-fifths of the army of children who enter American schools never go beyond the elementary grades.
 - a. The school grows irksome, the dollar calls, the home commands, the child is anxious, and leaves at the end or during the elementary course.
 - b. For each 1,000 children in the first grade, 263 in the eighth, and only 56 in the twelfth.
 - (a) 73 children in each 100 never complete the course in the elementary schools.
 - (b) 94 children in each 100 never reach the end of the high school.
 - c. Any serious attempt to use the public school system as a vehicle for social education, must therefore be directed, primarily, toward the elementary grades.

(3) Through the medium of the public schools, the possibility of developing a system of social ideals in the general population is far greater than by means of newspapers, magazines, labor unions, etc.

- a. Primarily because the public school reaches people while they are young and in the formative stage.

(4) The most difficult problem confronting the schools is the teaching of a sense of social responsibility.

- a. To learn the Constitution verbatim goes a very little way towards making of children good citizens.
- b. If the school is to perform its social function, it must introduce instruction in social problems in the grades.
- c. The schools must overcome the ignorance regarding personal standards, the failure to perform intelligently parental duties, the lack of an intelligent feeling of social responsibility.
- d. It is anti-social to pay low wages, and the school children should know it.
- e. It is anti-social to maintain unhygienic living conditions, and the children should realize it.
- f. The working life should be long and joyous and the schools should make this fact a part of the consciousness of every child.
- g. In these teachings, the most fundamental work can be done by the elementary schools,—for they reach all the people, and reach them while they are impressionable children.

Suggested Readings:

- *Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. XV.
- Beard, American City Government, Ch. XII.
- Horne, Idealism in Education, Ch. I.
- Dutton, Social Phases of Education, 3-39.
- Scott, Social Education, Ch. I.

SECTION 86. THE ROLE OF INTELLECT IN SOCIAL LIFE: A SUMMARY.

(1) A distinctive character of our human social life is due to the modifying influence of intellectual elements.

- a. The intellect directs and guides the social forces much as the rudder guides a ship.
- b. The intellect modifies the instincts profoundly through substituting in their places, habits which at least in later life become as strong as any of the original activities.
- c. Intellect finally comes to direct and control not only the forces of physical nature but also the impulses and feelings of human nature.

(2) Civilization has been built up largely through invention and discovery.

- a. Intellectual perceptions of certain ways in which advantages may be realized and disadvantages overcome have been at the basis of that progressive mastery over nature which is synonymous with progress.

(3) Rôle of the intellect is seen chiefly in social progress rather than in social organization.

- a. Social organization at any particular moment is largely a matter of instinct.
- b. The intellect is a superior instrument of adjustment to the new.
- c. The apparent antagonism between intellect and social development springs from the fact that the intellect is a dynamic agent in society.
 - (a) It is concerned more with social changes while the instincts and feelings are concerned more with maintaining the social order.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. XI.
- Dealey, Sociology, Ch. XIII.
- James, Psychology (briefer course), Ch. XII.
- Swift, Mind in the Making, Ch. X.

Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter X.

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- Baldwin, J. M., Mental Development, Macm.: 1906.
- Baldwin, J. M., Social and Ethical Interpretations, Macm.: 1906.
- Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm.: 1905.

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Brinton, D., *The Basis of Human Relations*, Putnam: 1902.
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Cooley, C. H., *Social Organization*, Scribner's: 1909.
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Ellwood, C. A., *Sociology in its Psychological Aspects*, Appleton: 1912.
Hobhouse, L. T., *Mind in Evolution*, Macm.: 1901.
Horne, H. H., *The Philosophy of Education*, Macm.: 1907.
Huey, E. B., *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*, Macm.: 1908.
James, Wm., *Psychology* (briefer course), Holt: 1910.
Judd, C. H., *Genetic Psychology*, Appleton: 1909.
Major, D. R., *First Steps in Mental Growth*, Macm.: 1906.
Mason, O. T., *Origins of Inventions*, Scribner's: 1910.
McDougall, Wm., *Social Psychology*, Luce: 1909.
Moulton, R. G., *World Literature and its Place in General Culture*, Macm.: 1911.
Nearing, Scott, *Social Adjustment*, Macm.: 1911.
Ribot, Th., *Psychology of the Emotions*, Scribner's: 1911.
Rogers, A. K., *History of Philosophy*, Macm.: 1911.
Ross, E. A., *Changing America*, Century: 1912.
Royce, J., *Outlines of Psychology*, Macm.: 1908.
Small, A. W., *General Sociology*, Univ. of Chi. Pr.: 1905.
Swift, E. J., *Mind in the Making*, Scribner's: 1908.
Thomas, W. I., *Source Book for Social Origins*, Univ. of Chi. Pr.: 1909.

Suggested Topics for Investigations for Chapter X.

1. The Place of Sociology in Education.
2. History of Printing.
3. Origin and Development of Five American Universities.
4. A Complete History of your own College.
5. From Franklin to Burleson.
6. Social Influences of the Newspaper.
7. History of the Telephone as a Means of Communication.
8. Argument for the Municipal Newspaper.
9. Influence of the Novel in Social Progress.
10. Vocational Guidance in the United States.

CHAPTER XI.

THE ASSOCIATIONAL FACTORS IN SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 87. THE GREGARIOUS INSTINCT.

(1) Displayed by many species of animals.

- a. Its operation in its simplest form implies none of the higher qualities of mind, neither sympathy nor capacity for mutual aid.
- b. South African ox displays no affection for his fellows so long as he is among them; but if he becomes separated from the herd, he displays extreme distress until he rejoins it.
- c. In its simplicity, it is a mere uneasiness in isolation from the herd; its utility to animals liable to attack is obvious.
- d. The instinct is commonly strongly confirmed by habit, the individual is born into a society, grows up in it, the being with others becomes a habit deeply rooted in the instinct.

(2) To the normal man, to be alone is the greatest torture.

- a. Solitary confinement is by many regarded as a mode of torture too cruel and unnatural for civilized countries.
- b. For all but a few exceptional and generally highly cultivated persons, the one essential condition of recreation is being one of a crowd.
- c. Normal, daily recreation of the population of our towns is to walk up and down the streets in the evening where the throng is densest.

(3) The gregarious instinct marks off species and races, is the basis of class distinctions, of innumerable forms of alliance.

- a. Conduct toward those whom we feel to be most like ourselves is instinctively and rationally different from

our conduct toward those appearing to be unlike ourselves.

b. The working-man joins in a strike of which he does not approve rather than cut himself off from his fellows.

(4) In early times when population was scanty, the gregarious impulse played an important part in social evolution by keeping people together.

a. Thereby occasioning the need for social laws and institutions as well as providing the conditions of aggregation in which alone the higher evolution of the social attributes was possible.

(5) When reflection enters in and points out the relation of the gregarious instinct to the welfare of society, then the individual may consciously strive for the welfare of others.

Suggested Readings :

McDougall, Social Psychology, Ch. XII.
Ribot, Psychology of Emotions, Pt. II, Ch. VIII.
Ross, Social Control, Ch. III.
Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Child Study, 118-25.

SECTION 88. SYMPATHY: AN INSTRUMENT OF SOCIAL PROGRESS.

(1) The fundamental and primitive form of sympathy is exactly what the word implies—a suffering with, the experiencing of any feeling when and because we observe in other persons the expression of that feeling.

a. Sympathetic induction of emotion in the most unmistakable fashion by all gregarious animals.

b. When we hear a scream of terror, we suffer a pang of fear though we know nothing of the cause of the scream of terror.

c. When a speaker introduces skillfully an emotional quality in his voice, a similar feeling is aroused in the listener, even though the speaker may be talking in an unknown tongue.

- d. A sufferer's expression of pain may induce so lively a distress in the onlooker as to incapacitate him for giving help.

(2) The constant appeal in any reform movement in human society is to the sympathies.

- a. Since conscious changes in human society can be satisfactorily brought about only by the enlistment of the feelings upon the side of the change.
- b. The social function of sympathy is to serve as a sort of social cement; common feelings serve to re-inforce and to fix common activities.
- c. It is successful enlistment of the sympathies in behalf of reformative changes which has accomplished much of the social progress of the last two centuries.
- d. As a concrete expression of sympathy in human society, the working of charity at its best will illustrate the function of sympathy.

(3) Sympathy is the feeling side of all altruistic activities in society.

- a. No complex and stable types of co-operation can be developed, so far as is known, upon a basis of self-interest alone.
- b. It is especially the higher forms of such sympathetic elements as humanitarian sentiment and ethical love which have been definitely progressive forces in man's social life.

(4) Sympathy is a mental element which may be described as the primitive social cement, it develops with the expanding process of life into one of the chief instruments for maintaining social solidarity and also for bringing about progressive changes.

- a. It would seem that its place in developed social life can be regarded as subordinate only to that of reason.

Suggested Readings :

- *Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. XIV.
- Smith, Adam, in Carver, Sociology and Social Progress, Ch. XVI.

Ribot, Psychology of Emotions, Pt. II, Ch. IV.
McDougall, Social Psychology, Ch. VI.
Cooley, Human Nature and the Social Order, Ch. IV.

SECTION 89. IMITATION: AN AGENT OF CONSERVATION AND OF PROGRESS.

(1) The child gets the bulk of his ideas, habits, ideals, and purposes by imitating the copy in the way of activities, ideals, and character furnished within the family circle.

- a. So rapidly does this imitative process go on that by the time the eighth year is reached it seems probable that the foundation lines of the child's social and moral character are laid.
- b. This imitative process preserves the continuity of the social environment and is a vast conservative force in society.
- c. Only by imitation that each generation takes up and makes its own the customs and traditions of the preceding generation.
- d. Parents set children copies when the children's habits are unformed and when they lack all means of test or criticism.
- e. More custom imitation in human than in the lower species.
 - (a) There the young are well equipped with instincts at birth, leave the parent relatively early; little chance for imitation of the parent.

(2) A tendency for practices to continue by custom imitation long after their original significance has been forgotten:

- a. American idoltry of a partly undemocratic Federal Constitution.
- b. American veneration for a common law at variance with certain needs of an industrial civilization.
- c. Deference for a traditional system of law which exhibits too great a respect for the individual and too little respect for the needs of society.
- d. A Chinaman confesses: "I approach my elder brother with respect; my father and mother with veneration; my grandfather with awe."

- (3) Physical isolation favors custom imitation.
 - a. Geographic barriers tend to shut out new stimuli.
 - b. In the back-country, survive clannishness, patriarchal authority, self-supporting preachers, "hell-fire" doctrines.
 - c. Compare Russia (rural) with Germany (urban).
 - d. The Isle of Man is famous for the old-time flavor of its institution and customs.
- (4) Society relies for stability upon custom—imitation; without it society would fly to pieces.
- (5) Custom imitation is offset by fashion imitation; the former is a borrowing from ancestors or forerunners, the latter, from contemporaries.
 - a. When we imitate a contemporary, we are obliged usually to surrender some rooted belief or practice; our imitation is a substitution, has to overcome the force of habit.
 - b. The railroads penetrating the rougher parts of Mexico set the hand three centuries forward on the dial.
 - c. Books, magazines, and newspapers favor fashion imitation; on the whole they create contacts with the present rather than with the past.
 - d. The school may deliver the young from ignorant prejudices; but if its basis of instruction be the ancient writings it may foster a most cramping traditionalism.
 - e. Freedom of discussion breaks the spell of custom-imitation.
- (6) Features of Americanism which encourage fashion imitation as against custom imitation.
 - a. Our individualism braces the immigrant against the commands of priests, padrones, the natural up-builders of tradition.
 - b. The spirit of progress—little reverence for antiquity.
 - c. Settlement in a new region gives a blow to the old customs.
- (7) Three classes of people in relation to fashion imitation.

- a. Those who imitate their superior, so as to be taken for the superior.
- b. Those who imitate in order not to be conspicuous.
- c. Those who never conform to fashion, the "hayseeds."
 - (a) They are the people often of real backbone, democracy, independence.
- (8) It may become merely the fashion to think in certain ways and we imitate, without reason.
 - a. That manual labor is degrading.
 - b. That pecuniary success is the only success.
 - c. That civic worth is measured by pecuniary success.
 - d. That things are beautiful in proportion as they are costly.
- (9) Laws of fashion imitation.
 - a. The social superior is imitated by the social inferior.
 - b. The more successful is imitated by the less successful.
 - c. The rich are imitated by the poor.
 - d. The city is imitated by the country.
 - e. The college is imitated by the high school; the senior, by the freshman.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ross, Social Psychology, Chs. VIII, XII.
- Ross, Social Control, Ch. XV.
- Tarde, Laws of Imitation, Chs. VII, VIII.
- Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. XIII.
- Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. VI.

SECTION 90. LEADERSHIP.

- (1) Leadership seems to originate in crises and conflicts.
 - a. He who first shows ability to cope with a highly problematic situation becomes the leader.
 - b. Sometimes the situation which produces leaders is a conflict between the individual and the group—more common in primitive days than in modern.
 - c. Sometimes the situation which produces leaders is a conflict between groups.

- d. Leadership functions in antagonistic phases of life: in maintaining the organized social process, and in securing social change.
 - (a) Leaders today who are trying to keep time-honored institutions intact and to uphold the mores are in conflict with leaders who are trying to lead the people toward better social institutions and control.
 - (b) Today social leaders who are trying to secure adequate changes in our property system are in conflict with those capitalistic leaders who are trying to maintain their established positions.
 - e. A group with too strong leadership of the organized process falls behind; a group with too strong leadership favoring social change would go to pieces.
- (2) While the plurality of leadership is necessary, its unity is found in that balance between its opposing phases which continuously makes for the best interests of the group concerned.
 - a. In attempts to define, stimulate, and organize the vague sentiments and the confused tendencies of the public mind.
 - b. In seeking out the undeveloped capacity of the people and making it hungry for expression.
- (3) Some personal qualities of social leadership.
 - a. The ideal social leader combines the endurance of the warrior, the sagacity of the captains of industry, the power of a social motive propelled by rationalized and indomitable will-power.
 - b. He is a true man—the best of his kind available.
 - c. His views embrace the world, his moral courage assumes limitless responsibilities, his sense of humanity is so keen that he seems one with the common people, to be of their sort.
 - d. The world's greatest leader is the world's greatest problem-solver.

Suggested Readings:

Cooley, Human Nature and the Social Order, Ch. IX.
Ross, Social Control, Chs. XVII, XVIII.
Le Bon, The Crowd, Ch. III.
Mumford, "The Origins of Leadership," Amer. Jour. Sociol.
12:216-40, 367-97, 500-31.
Ross, Foundations of Sociology, Ch. X.

SECTION 91. THE POPULATION CLASSES.

- (1) The results of association are not equally shared by all individuals.
 - a. Not all start in life with equally good heredity; not all get equally good nourishment; not all share equally in an environment of good influences; not all share equally in the mental growth that takes place.
 - b. Some teachers are better than others, and their pupils gain an advantage over pupils that are badly instructed.
 - c. Inequality in physical, mental, and moral power, and varieties of disposition, are among the characteristics of a social population.
 - d. Population is therefore differentiated into classes: vitality, personality, and social.
- (2) The vitality classes spring from the combination of different elements in the inheritance and circumstance of each individual.
 - a. The low vitality classes have a high birth-rate and high death-rate; approximately coincide with the impoverished lower working classes.
 - b. The medium vitality classes have a low birth-rate and a low death-rate; approximately coincide with the business and professional classes of the towns.
 - c. The high vitality classes have a high birth-rate and a low death-rate; roughly coincide with the rural land-owning population.
- (3) The personality classes: geniuses, normally endowed, defectives.

- a. The genius—distinctive characteristic is inventive power.
- b. Normally endowed—includes all who are imitative rather than inventive, and of mental and moral soundness.
- c. Defective—all who are in any way defective in mind and body.

(4) The social classes, distinguished by differences of social nature; society molds some individuals into a perfect adaptation to social life.

- a. The non-social—the primordial social class—contains in germ all social virtue, all social vice.
- b. The pseudo-social and poverty classes—composed of congenital and habitual paupers, and the masses living below the poverty line.
- c. The anti-social classes are composed of instinctive, habitual and occasional criminals; who make no pretense of social virtues and prefer to live by open aggression upon the social.
- d. The social classes include those in whom “the consciousness of kind” is highly developed and whose dispositions and abilities impel them to make positive contributions to the sum of helpful relations.
 - (a) The social classes, therefore, are the natural aristocracy among men.

Suggested Readings :

*Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. V.

Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. III, Ch. V.

Goodnow, Municipal Government, 25-44.

Crackanthorpe, “Population and Progress,” Fortn: 86: 1001-16, 87:215-22.

SECTION 92. THE NON-SOCIAL CLASSES.

(1) Includes, relatively speaking, all savage and barbarian peoples; the great task of socializing these millions is being undertaken primarily by missionary enterprise.

(2) Includes children; not yet developed and socialized.

- a. Here is the work of education; education should direct itself more and more to the problem of producing efficient members of society.
 - (a) Since modern business with its ideal of individual power and success, frequently produces the cultured freebooter.
 - (b) Even education instead of being a socializing agency may become an individualizing agency dissolving the social order itself.
- b. Education must be socialized.
 - (a) Must aim first of all at producing the citizen, before it aims at producing the lawyer, the engineer, the physician.
 - (b) All individuals should be taught to be good parents, good neighbors and members of communities even more than they are taught the accomplishments of life.
 - (c) While industrial education has its place, yet the relations of men to one another are more important than the relations of men to nature.
 - (d) Such studies as history, government, economics, ethics, and the other social sciences must occupy a larger and larger place in the education of the future.
- c. A training in the social science branches will check many of the most menacing and unsocial tendencies of our present civilization.
 - (a) It will lessen the practical materialism of modern civilization; will throw the emphasis on the relations of men to one another rather than on the relations of men to nature.
 - (b) Will check the exaggerated individualism of the day.
 - (c) Will insure the development of true moral freedom; will involve a searching and impersonal inspection of social institutions and public policies.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. XV.
- Dealey, Sociology, 287-98.
- Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. X.
- Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Ch. III.

SECTION 93. THE PSEUDO-SOCIAL AND POVERTY CLASSES.

- (1) Poverty—that economic and social state in which persons have not sufficient income to maintain health and physical efficiency.
 - a. Pauperism—the state of legal dependence where relief is received from public sources.
- (2) Booth estimates that 30% of the population of London live below the poverty line; not so prevalent in the United States as yet.
- (3) Objective causes of poverty or those to be found outside of the individual in the environment.
 - a. Economic—defective industrial organization, unjust distribution of wealth, child and woman labor, etc.
 - b. Defects in government, permitting corruption on the one hand or failing to check economic evils on the other.
 - c. Unsanitary conditions of living, educational defects.
 - d. Unassimilated immigration, etc.
- (4) Subjective causes of poverty.
 - a. Physical and mental defects of all sorts, especially those arising from sickness and accidents.
 - b. Intemperance, sexual vice, old age, neglect and desertion.
 - c. A large percentage of poverty seems attributable to misfortune rather than to misconduct.
- (5) Science of philanthropy now organizing scientific ways of dealing with poverty.
 - a. Remedies and methods of prevention must be along the lines of biological and psychological adjustment of the individual to the social organization.

- b. Outdoor relief—relief given to the poor outside of an institution—to overcome adverse circumstances without impairing the character of the individual and of family life.
- c. Indoor relief—within institutions for the permanently dependent classes.
- d. Preventive measures—for better housing, for better sanitation, for purer food, for more just economic conditions, for prevention of disease, etc.
- e. Scientific understanding of the conditions necessary for normal human social life.

Suggested Readings :

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. XII.
- Webb, S. and B., Prevention of Destitution, Chs. I, X.
- Dealey, Sociology, 298-304.
- Warner, American Charities, Ch. II.
- Henderson, Dependents, Defectives and Delinquents, Pts. I, II.

SECTION 94. THE ANTI-SOCIAL CLASSES.

- (1) Crime—a violation of law.
 - a. But law itself is only one aspect of social life, and a broader definition of crime would be "anti-social acts."
- (2) Three main classes of criminals.
 - a. The instinctive or born criminal in whom the tendency to crime is inborn, due to some congenital defect.
 - (a) Most common type is the moral imbecile, a person slightly mentally defective, who can not distinguish right from wrong.
 - b. The habitual criminal—a normal person who has acquired the tendency to crime from his environment.
 - (a) The most marked type is the professional, frequently above the average in ability; the most dangerous class of criminals with which society has to deal.

- c. Single offender—a normal person who commits only a single crime through some sudden stress or temptation.
 - (a) Single offenders constitute perhaps 40% of our prison population.
- d. Grave fault of our penal institutions that they have not provided for different treatment for different classes of criminals.

(3) Cost of crime in the United States.

- a. Estimated cost of police, prisons, annually, \$200,000,000.
- b. Estimated that 250,000 criminals at large, cost on average \$1,650 annually, total \$400,000,000—grand total, \$600,000,000.
 - (a) In comparison, cost of public education in the United States is annually about \$425,000,000.

(4) England is the only country of the civilized world where there is an apparent decrease in crime in proportion to population.

- a. This decrease may be attributed to England's excellent prison system and also to the swiftness and certainty of the English courts of justice.

(5) Causes of crime.

- a. Objective—demoralized homes, city life, economic crises and hard times, defects in our criminal procedure.
- b. Subjective—due to structural and functional abnormalities.

(6) Crime—dealt with by the science of criminology.

- a. Every individual must be well-born, physically and mentally.
- b. Every individual must have a training at home and at school which will adjust him properly to society.
- c. Just social conditions must be provided.

Suggested Readings :

*Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. XIII.
McConnell, Criminal Responsibility and Social Restraint,
Chs. XXII, XXIII.

Dealey, Sociology, 304-37.

Wines, Punishment and Reformation, Ch. I, ff.

Henderson, Preventive Agencies and Methods, Ch. I, ff.

Parmelee, Anthropology and Sociology in Relation to Criminal Procedure, Ch. III.

SECTION 95. THE PRE-EMINENT SOCIAL CLASSES.

- (1) The pre-eminent social classes—men and women who have health, originality and that unselfish love of mankind which move them to devote their efforts to promoting the social welfare.
 - a. Small in numbers, but accomplish the greater part of those undertakings which in their totality, we call progress.
 - b. Give to society the new inventions, the improvements in law, industry, art, religion, and morals.
 - c. Do most of the original thinking for society, leading, directing, organizing.
 - d. New truth opens to their keener vision, new possibilities of life appear in response to their quick sympathies and pure ideals.
 - e. They communicate not merely cold facts, but the psychical life in which truth and ideals are realized.
 - f. Stoned perhaps by their own age, probably because they were not content with it.
 - g. Honored by the later ages to which in spirit they belonged; looking backward, we say of them: "They lived before their time."
 - h. To the superior class is given the task of modifying the estimates of things held socially valuable.
 - i. Most of the inhibiting impulses sent through a social group emanate from a minority with brains, prestige, and superior social insight.
- (2) In nothing whatever can a nation so ill afford to be wasteful as in her men and women who combine health and originality with a highly developed social nature.

Suggested Readings:

- *Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. XI.
- Ross, Social Control, Ch. XXVI.
- Baldwin, Social and Ethical Interpretations, Chs. II and V.
- Dealey, Sociology, Ch. XVIII.
- Cooley, Human Nature and the Social Order, Chs. V, VI.
- Bibliography of Suggested Readings for Chapter XI.*
- Baldwin, J. M., Social and Ethical Interpretations, Macm: 1906.
- Baldwin, J. M., The Individual and Society, Badger: 1911.
- Blackmar, F. W., Elements of Sociology, Macm: 1905.
- Carver, Sociology and Social Progress, Ginn: 1905.
- Cooley, C. H., Human Nature and the Social Order, Scribner's: 1902.
- Cooley, C. H., Social Organization, Scribner's: 1909.
- Dealey, J. Q., Sociology, Silver, Burdett: 1909.
- Dealey and Ward, Text-book of Sociology, Macm: 1905.
- Dewey and Tufts, Ethics, Holt: 1908.
- Ellwood, C. A., Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Amer. Book: 1910.
- Ellwood, C. A., Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Appleton: 1912.
- Fairbanks, A., Introduction to Sociology, Scribner's: 1910.
- Giddings, F. H., Elements of Sociology, Macm: 1909.
- Giddings, F. H., Principles of Sociology, Macm.: 1907.
- Goodnow, F. J., Municipal Government, Century: 1909.
- Henderson, C. R., Preventive Agencies and Methods, Char. Pub: 1910.
- Henderson, C. R., Dependents, Defectives, Delinquents, Heath: 1909.
- Kirkpatrick, E. A., Fundamentals of Child Study, Macm: 1908.
- Le Bon, G., The Crowd, Unwin: 1903.
- McConnell, R. M., Criminal Responsibility and Social Restraint, Scribner's: 1912.
- McDougall, W., Social Psychology, Luce: 1909.
- Parmelee, M., Anthropology and Sociology in Relation to Criminal Procedure, Macm: 1908.

Ribot, Th., *Psychology of the Emotions*, Scribner's: 1911.
Ross, E. A., *Foundations of Sociology*, Macm: 1905.
Ross, E. A., *Social Control*, Macm: 1910.
Ross, E. A., *Social Psychology*, Macm: 1908.
Small, A. W., *General Sociology*, Univ. of Chi. Pr: 1905.
Tarde, G., *Laws of Imitation*, tr. Parsons, Holt: 1903.
Ward, L. F., *Applied Sociology*, Ginn: 1906.
Warner, A. G., *American Charities*, Crowell: 1908.
Webb. S. and B., *Prevention of Destitution*, Longmans: 1911.
Wines, F. H., *Punishment and Reformation*, Crowell, 1910.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter XI.

1. The Social Center Movement in the United States.
2. The George Junior Republic Idea.
3. History of Social Settlements.
4. The Work of Judge Ben B. Lindsey.
5. Charity Organizations in your City.
6. The Social Significance of China's Awakening.
7. Miss Jane Addams and Hull House.
8. The Writings of Edward A. Steiner.
9. The Jukes.
10. The Leading Socializing Influence in your City.

CHAPTER XII.

A SUMMARY OF SOCIAL PROGRESS

SECTION 96. THE BEGINNING OF SOCIAL PROGRESS.

- (1) Society has expanded from simple beginnings, function by function, part by part.
 - a. Animal societies show social qualities in embryo.
 - b. Our starting-point is with earliest social groups.
 - (a) We presuppose not an individual, but a group.
 - (b) Life in social groups is the most powerful weapon in the struggle for existence; enables the feebler insects, the feebler birds, the feebler mammals to protect their lives.
 - c. Neither in savagery nor in civilization do men normally live in isolation.
- (2) Among all species and in every stage of evolution, the extent of social grouping and its place or position is determined by external physical conditions.
 - a. Where a food supply is found or may be certainly and easily produced.
 - b. Earliest social groups are maintained at a certain size and prevented from growing larger chiefly by the quantity of available food.
- (3) The remains of the earliest social groups are found in the region running northwest and southeast from India.
 - a. The first really dense massing of population was in that wonderful valley 600 miles long with an average breadth of seven miles—the Nile.
 - b. The valley of the Euphrates which for thousands of years was the Nile's only rival was almost equally fertile.
- (4) Ancient groupings reach a certain stage of civilization and then fall away chiefly because they are unable to resist the pressure of nature.

- a. India's high temperature a cause of her decline.
 - (a) A cheap and abundant national food in rice, labor market oversupplied and unequal distribution of wealth, then an unequal distribution of social and political power.
- (5) Ancient civilizations subject to sublimity of nature which tended to excite imagination and discourage knowledge.
 - a. In Europe, on the whole, the tendency of natural phenomena is to limit the imagination and embolden the understanding—thus making social advance again possible.

Suggested Readings :

Blackmar, Elements of Sociology, Bk. II, Ch. 1.

Ellwood, Sociology in its Psychological Aspects, Ch. VII.

Dealey, Sociology, Ch. II.

Giddings, Elements of Sociology, Ch. XX.

SECTION 97. MIGRATION PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL PROGRESS.

- (1) All peoples more or less migratory in their habits, man has been a wanderer upon the face of the earth since earliest times.
 - a. The human species probably spread from a relatively narrow area and peopled the earth by successive migrations.
 - b. Ancient migrations were largely those of peoples or tribes; modern migration is more of an individual matter.
 - c. Surface of earth offers grooves whose direction determines the destination of unplanned migrations and whose termini become regions of historical importance.
 - (a) St. Lawrence river followed by Jesuits, then by fur-traders, now by whaleback steamers after Manitoba wheat.
 - d. Migration is usually in relation to zones and heat-belts.

- (a) Europe has received immigrants chiefly from temperate parts of Asia and Africa.
- e. Movement is usually from one habitat to a similar one.
 - (a) Westward movement in the United States was usually from one environment to a similar one farther to the west.
 - f. Movements in 19th century probably exceed in the numbers of individuals concerned, any other migratory movements of which we have record.
- (2) Causes of ancient migrations and primary causes of all migrations seem to be (a) lack of food, (b) lack of territory for all expanding population, (c) war.
 - a. In modern times other causes operate, (d) to get better economic opportunities, (e) political oppression, (f) religious persecution.
- (3) The principal countries which today receive immigrants are: United States, Brazil, Argentina, Canada, Australia.
- (4) Migration to the United States.
 - a. Up to 1840, the number in any one year was relatively small.
 - b. In 1842, the number reached 100,000 for the first time; in 1905, 1,000,000.
 - c. Up to 1880, 75% came from Western Europe; since 1880, about 75% from Southern and Eastern Europe.
 - d. Four-fifths of recent immigrants belong to unskilled classes; two-thirds are males.
 - e. Present tendency to mass in mining, manufacturing, and transportation industries; hence in small industrial cities or in whole sections of large cities.
 - f. About one-fourth cannot read or write in any language.
- (5) Immigration to the United States has developed our natural resources, given the United States some of its best blood, but has also accentuated the social problems of our country.

Suggested Readings:

*Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. IX.

Jenks and Lauck, *The Immigration Problem*, Ch. I, ff.
Hourwich, *Immigration and Labor*, Ch. I, ff.
Roberts, *The New Immigration*, Ch. I, ff.
Steiner, *On the Trail of the Immigrant*, Ch. I, ff.
Turner, in Bullock, *Selected Readings in Economics*, Ch. II.
Warne, *The Immigrant Invasion*, Chs. XIV, XV.
Fairchild, *Immigration*, Chs. XVII, XVIII.

SECTION 98. URBAN PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL PROGRESS.

- (1) The growth of large cities constitutes one of the greatest of all the problems of modern civilization.
 - a. The city is an intensification of all our other social problems—crime, vice, poverty.
- (2) The city is in a sense a relatively modern problem, due to modern industrial development.
 - a. Down to 1800 there were only 22 cities in Europe with a population over 100,000.
 - b. In 1800, only six cities in the United States with over 8,000 population; in 1900, 546 such cities.
- (3) Causes of the growth of great cities.
 - a. Relatively less importance of agriculture in the life of man.
 - b. Growth and centralization of manufacturing industries.
 - c. Increase of trade and commerce.
 - (a) Nearly all great cities are located at natural breaks in transportation.
- (4) Social conditions of city life.
 - a. People in the active period of life, from 15 to 65 years of age predominate in the city.
 - b. Great cities in the United States have over twice as many foreign-born in their population as the United States as a whole.
 - c. Birth and marriage rates are higher in the cities than in the country.
 - d. Death-rate is higher than in the country—due to poor living conditions.

- e. Physical condition of city populations far below that of the rural populations.
- f. Crime and illegitimacy are both about twice as high, likewise the suicide rate, poverty is far more common.
- g. But illiteracy of native white children is much less than in the country.

(5) Proposed remedies for evils of city life.

- a. Make agriculture more attractive; also village life.
- b. Colonize the poor of cities in the country.
- c. Develop suburbs through rapid transit.
- d. Most important, an improved municipal housekeeping.
 - (a) A socialized control by the people of the city of all those things that are used in common.

(6) The era of the city is just beginning.

- a. Larger and larger proportions of our population will come to live under urban conditions.
- b. The city will dominate the society of the future.
- c. Humanity must solve the problems of the city if social progress is to continue.
- d. The city can be made a place in which human beings may find their ideal society.

Suggested Readings:

- *Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems, Ch. XI.
- Beard, American City Government, Ch. I, ff.
- Howe, The City, Chs. XIX, XX.
- Wilcox, The American City, Ch. I.
- Munro, Government of American Cities, Ch. II.
- Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. V.

SECTION 99. THE GOAL OF SOCIAL PROGRESS: A NORMAL SOCIETY.

(1) Of the essential conditions of a normal society, a sound physical heredity may be named first.

- a. Degenerate offspring of feeble-minded, or alcoholic parents come into the world with a just grievance against society.
- b. Every child should be well-born.

- (2) Second: protected childhood.
 - a. From actual exposure and abandonment.
 - b. From death by neglect, in orphanage, or by the failure of parents in ability to care for their offspring.
 - c. From actual cruelty and maltreatment by parents or guardians.
 - d. From exploitation by employment for wages in the tender years of childhood.
- (3) Third: a prolonged working period for both men and women.
 - a. Conditions of industry should be so guarded that workers shall not be worn out and thrown upon the scrap heap in middle life.
- (4) Fourth: freedom from preventable disease.
 - a. By giving to health authorities universal and constructive oversight of infectious diseases and remediable defects of children of school age.
 - b. By lowering the death-rate, by the conquest of infectious diseases, by increasing vitality.
- (5) Fifth: protection from a class of well-known and easily identified criminals, whom we do not reform and whom we do not outlaw.
 - a. By reforming prison and jail and by setting to work until reformed the recognized class of professional criminals, vagrants, thieves, procurers, etc.
- (6) Sixth: some general system of insurance against all of the ordinary contingencies which now cause dependence or sudden lowering of the standard of living.
 - a. A general system of insurance against death, old age, accident, sickness.
- (7) Seventh: a system of education with vocational training (industrial, commercial, domestic), but which trains, first of all for good citizenship and good parenthood.
- (8) Eighth: a scientific relief system—for helping individuals and families to make new adjustments.
 - a. Such a need will arise from time to time in a dynamic society which is making new advances and new discoveries.

(9) Ninth: a standard of living high enough to insure full nourishment, reasonable recreation, adequate protection from cold, heat, rain, darkness, overcrowding, indecency.

- a. For a family of five in a large city, a minimum income of about \$800 or \$900.

(10) The final condition for a normal society is religion.

- a. It is the greatest thing in the world, but it is not yet entirely social.
- b. Even in an imperfect and growing society there must be the purifying influence of religion.

Suggested Readings:

*Devine, Misery and its Causes, Ch. VI.
Nearing, Social Adjustment, Ch. XVII.
Patten, The New Basis of Civilization, Chs. IX, X.
Devine, Social Forces (entire book).

SECTION 100. THE STUDY OF SOCIAL PROGRESS AS CONDUCTED BY THE SOCIAL SCIENCES.

- (1) Three broad fields of science.
 - a. Physical—most exact, least complex, builds up laws of the inorganic world.
 - b. Biological—based on physical, deals primarily with the general laws of the organic life.
 - c. Social—based on both physical and biological laws, deals with the human species in the organic world.
- (2) The social sciences include the various special social sciences such as economics, political science, ethics, psychology, history, anthropology, ethnology, philanthropy, criminology, etc.
 - a. As biological sciences have a general science of biology dealing with general laws, so social sciences have a general science of sociology dealing with general social laws.
- (3) Sociology is the science of social progress.
 - a. It gives a viewpoint for the special social sciences, and keeps them united.
 - b. It receives its materials from the special social sciences, upon which it generalizes.

(4) Aim of the social sciences: (a) to furnish exact knowledge of human affairs, (b) to devise remedial and preventive means of avoiding unsocial and anti-social conditions, (c) to devise means of hastening social progress.

- a. By estimating social forces and their resultant action and by discovery of laws which control these forces it becomes possible to show probable outcome of present conditions.
- b. The social sciences can indicate the way of social progress.

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Taussig, F. W., Principles of Economics, Macm: 1911.

Thomas, W. I., Source-book for Social Origins, Univ. of Chi. Pr: 1909.

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Wilcox, D. F., *The American City*, Macm: 1911.

Woods, R. A., and others, *Americans in Progress*, Houghton, Mifflin, 1902.

Suggested Topics for Investigation for Chapter XII.

1. The Great Man Theory of Social Progress.
2. History of Sociological Thought.
3. The Five Most Serious Social Problems in your City.
4. Race Problems and Social Progress.
5. Social Science Courses in the High School.
6. A Summary of Social Progress in 1913.
7. A Study of Ross' Social Control.
8. The Task of Social Hygiene (Havelock Ellis).
9. The Social Unrest.
10. Five Leading Obstacles to Social Progress.
11. The Place of the Social Sciences in Education.
12. Social Parasites.

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